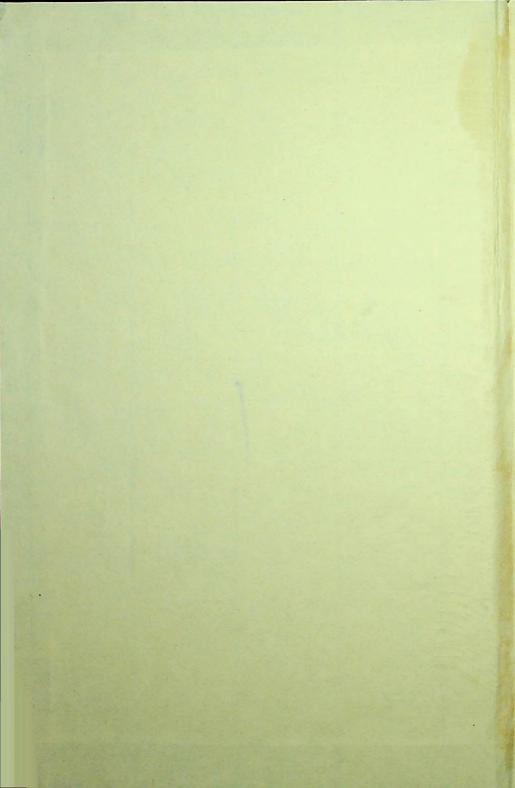
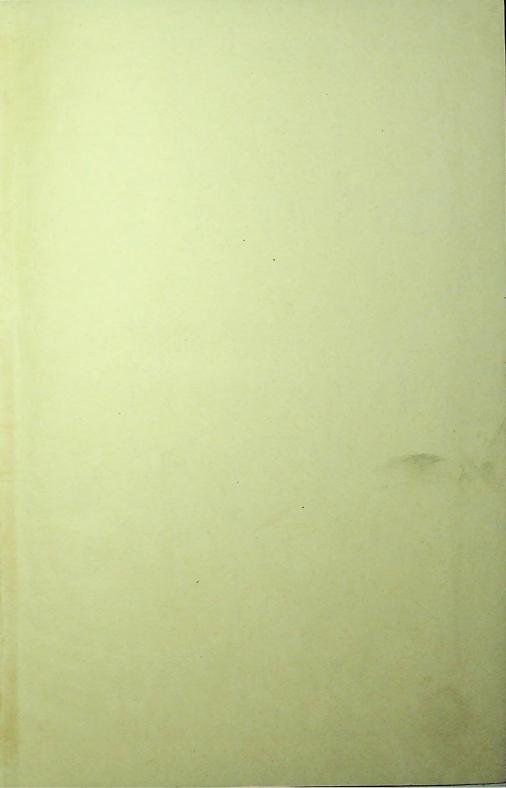


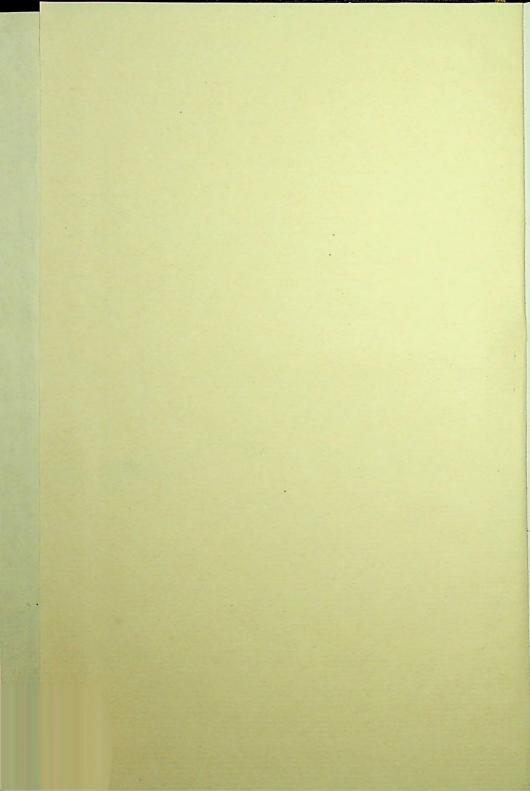
VEDIC INDEX INDEX NAMES AND SUBJECTS

VOLUME I

A.A. Macdonell A.B. Keith

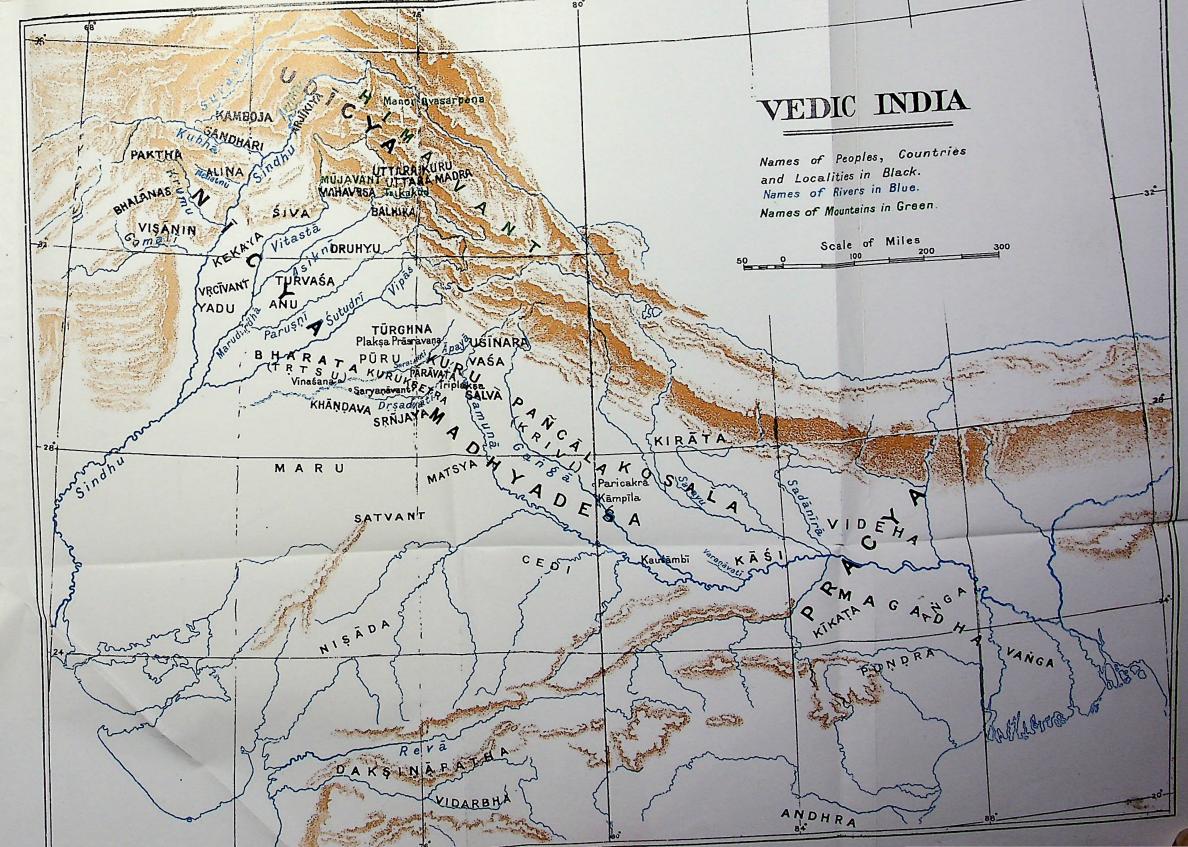






VEDIC INDEX OF NAMES AND SUBJECTS

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VEDIC INDEX

OF

NAMES AND SUBJECTS

ARTHUR ANTHONY MACDONELL

And ARTHUR BERRIEDALE KEITH

VOL. I

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PREFACE

Inception and Progress of the Book .- The origination of the present work was due to Professor T. W. Rhys Davids at the time when, several years ago, he was appointed general editor of the Indian Text Series to be published under the auspices of the Secretary of State for India. He then asked me to contribute a work supplying the historical material, as represented by proper names, to be found in the earliest period of Indian literature antecedent to the rise of Buddhism towards the close of the sixth century B.C. Since the subject came within the range of my special studies and moreover appeared to be one of considerable importance, I agreed to the proposal. But I did so with hesitation, because my leisure for a long time to come was already mortgaged by two works which involved much labour and on which I was already engaged. I soon came to the conclusion that till those works—the Brhaddevatā and the Vedic Grammar—were out of my hands, I could spare no time for the third book, the mere preparation, to say nothing of the publication, of which would thus have to be postponed for several years. Another hindrance would be caused by the tour of study and research in India which I contemplated making at the earliest opportunity. With the prospect of these long delays before me, I was tempted to throw up a task that seemed to have been rashly undertaken. At the same time, I was reluctant either to abandon or to put off indefinitely what I had once begun. It also seemed a pity to relinquish an enterprise which, if properly carried out, promised to be very useful, Under these circumstances, collaboration appeared the only way out of the difficulty. I bethought myself of Mr. A. B. Keith, who, as Boden Sanskrit scholar, had been my pupil for four years, and who had already assisted me since 1899, not only by reading the proofs of, but by suggesting improvements in, my History of Sanskrit Literature and my Sanskrit Grammar for Beginners, as well as my edition of the Bṛhaddevatā, then commencing to be printed. I accordingly asked him if he had the time and inclination to collaborate with me in the proposed work by at once beginning to collect material for it. He consented without hesitation, and the Secretary of State for India readily sanctioned this modification of the arrangements already made. There was no other man to whom I could have entrusted with such complete confidence the task of carrying out this preliminary work accurately and rapidly.

In 1909, about a year after my return from India, Mr. Keith supplied me with a considerable part of his collectanea, while my Vedic Grammar was still passing through the press. The regular printing did not begin till early in 1910, about the time when that work was published. The interval was taken up with preparing a sufficient amount of 'copy' for the printer, as well as with settling various questions of arrangement and typography.

Mode of Collaboration.—Our respective shares in the production of the book are, generally stated, as follows: Dr. Keith has collected the material, while I have acted chiefly as an editor, planning the scope of the work, arranging the distribution of text and notes, selecting the type to be used, cutting out, adding to or modifying the matter, weighing the evidence for different interpretations and conclusions, and deciding as to which view, in case of possible alternatives, should be preferred. Having written up in its final form every article contained in the book, I accept the responsibility for every statement and opinion expressed in it. I do not think that Dr. Keith and I have disagreed upon any material point. When we have differed

on minor questions, he has deferred to my judgment, though his view may have been right just as often as mine. Where erroneous conclusions have been drawn, the reader will be helped to correct them by the method I have pursued of supplying from the original texts the evidence on which such conclusions are based.

Scope of the Work.—At the outset it was proposed, as I have already stated, that the book should furnish the historical material in Vedic literature as represented by proper names. As soon, however, as I began to examine more carefully the historical material thus available, I became convinced that restriction to proper names would result in a harvest too meagre to deserve being gathered in the form of a book. It seemed essential to collect all the historical matter accessible to us in the earliest literary documents of India, and thus to furnish a conspectus of the most ancient phase of Aryan civilization that can be realized by direct evidence. If properly and thoroughly treated this matter would, I felt sure, yield a book of genuine value, a comprehensive work on Vedic antiquities; for it would include all the information that can be extracted from Vedic literature on such topics as agriculture, astronomy, burial, caste, clothing, crime, diseases, economic conditions, food and drink, gambling, kingship, law and justice, marriage, morality, occupations, polyandry and polygamy, the position of women, usury, village communities, war, wedding ceremonies, widow burning, witchcraft, and many others. The proper names would embrace not only persons, tribes, and peoples, but also mountains, rivers, and countries. The geographical distribution of the Vedic population would thus also be presented.

From the historical data amplified in this way I proposed, however, to exclude matter belonging to the domain of religion, which it seemed better to relegate to a separate work. At the same time it soon became clear that certain aspects of religious activity inseparably connected with the social and political life

of the age would have to be admitted, such as the functions of the main priests and some festivals or ritual practices. Again, certain names of perhaps purely mythological figures might have to be mentioned. The evidence is occasionally insufficient to show whether a name represents an actual historical personage: a demon or a mythical hero or priest may be meant. An undoubted demon may even have to be included, such as the one that is supposed to cause eclipses, because he belongs to the domain of primitive astronomy.

Chronological Limits.—The period which the book was intended to embrace had been decided at the outset as that of the Vedas and Brāhmanas. The upper limit here is the date of the oldest hymns of the Rigveda. That date is uncertain, but my conviction (set forth in my History of Sanskrit Literature, pp. 11-12) that it is not much earlier than 1200 B.C. still remains unshaken. It does not appear to me to be in the slightest degree invalidated by Professor Hugo Winckler's discoveries at Boghaz-köi, in Asia Minor, in the year 1907. That scholar has deciphered, in an inscription of about 1400 B.C. found there, the names of certain deities as mi-it-ra, uru-w-na, in-da-ra, and naša-at-ti-ia, which correspond to those of the important Vedic gods Mitra, Varuna, Indra, and Nāsatya. Three inferences may be drawn from the occurrence of these names. They may have been derived from Vedic India; in that case the Vedic religion must have flourished in India considerably before 1400 B.C., even though the hymns that have come down to us may not have been composed before that date. But that these names should have travelled all the way from India to Asia Minor is a hypothesis so highly improbable that it may be dismissed. Secondly, the names may belong to the early Iranian period after the Iranians had separated from the Indians, but before their language had reached the phonetic stage of the Avesta. This seems the most probable theory, both chronologically and geographically. It implies only that the Indian branch had separated from the Iranian, not that it had already entered India. Lastly, the names, being common to the Iranian and Indian languages, might be assigned to the Indo-Iranian period when the two branches were still one people living in Iran. This theory would still allow two centuries for separation, migration to India, and the commencement of Vedic literature in the north-west of India.

The lower limit of the Vedic period is the epoch of the rise and spread of Buddhism, or, roughly, 500 B.C. The Brāhmaņa literature to be exploited was assumed to be undoubtedly anterior to that date. The boundary line would, however, to some extent have to be overstepped by drawing on the Sūtras for evidence where the Vedas and Brāhmanas fail. But though the Sūtras are roughly contemporaneous with the first three centuries of Buddhism, they are practically an epitome of the practices of the Brāhmana period, and are thus often of great value in illustration or corroboration of the facts of that period. They are also important as representing the Brahminical evidence for those three centuries, especially as it is somewhat uncertain how far even the earliest Buddhist literary sources go back in an authentic form to the three centuries following the death of Buddha. Names and practices not referred to before the Sūtras were, however, to be mentioned only incidentally if at all: the few cases to the contrary that actually occur are not real exceptions, because they are derived from Vedic verses quoted in Sūtras, or from Brāhmaņa parts of Sūtras such as Baudhāyana.

Method Pursued.—Such was the scope of the work on which I finally decided before it was begun, and the plan has been adhered to in its execution as regards the contents. The manner in which those contents were to be presented was the next question to be settled and acted upon. Though both Dr. Keith and myself are familiar with the literature of the Vedic period from which the facts collected in these two volumes are drawn, and the mutual check exercised by two workers sifting the same material acts as a safeguard, it is

nevertheless not always possible to exclude the risk of error or unconscious bias in estimating evidence often obscure and doubtful. I have, therefore, throughout attached great importance to stating not only the evidence of the texts themselves from a first-hand knowledge, but also to setting forth fully the opinions of other authorities when the interpretation is uncertain. The Sanskrit scholar will thus be enabled to test without difficulty the correctness of the conclusions drawn directly from the original sources, while others will be protected from having to rely exclusively on what may possibly be onesided views. Articles have often been illustrated by adducing parallels from the institutions of cognate Āryan nations, as that on 'Caste' (treated under Varna, ii. 427-471). I have further endeavoured to utilize, chiefly in the notes, knowledge gained from a first-hand study of the archæological remains and of the modern conditions of India. Such knowledge, acquired during my tour in 1907-08, I have found to be of great value to me both as a student and as a teacher.

Arrangement.—The matter contained in these volumes is treated not in chapters, but in articles disposed in alphabetical order. That order was practically necessary when proper names only were to be included; when subjects were subsequently added to the plan, it still remained the most convenient method of arrangement. As all articles appear under Sanskrit words, the order which the latter follow is naturally that of the Sanskrit alphabet. This arrangement need, however, occasion no inconvenience to those users of the book who are unfamiliar with Sanskrit, because all the information they want can be found by reference to the full English Index at the end of Vol. ii. The Sanskrit Index, which contains, in addition to the terms representing the subjects treated, all incidental Sanskrit words occurring in the articles, is of course arranged in the Sanskrit order. For the purpose of obviating any possible inconvenience, the sequence of the Sanskrit alphabet is given on the last page of this preface. With the same end in view I

have given translations or explanations of all Sanskrit words and expressions, because the latter, though generally clear to Sanskrit scholars, would be unintelligible to others. Compound Sanskrit words have been divided into their component parts by the use of hyphens. In the case of obscure or irregularly formed Sanskrit words, I have sometimes added etymological explanations, which may be useful even to the Sanskrit scholar.

I have long had a rooted objection to crowding the letter-press of a book with parentheses containing a string of references or incidental explanations, because these distract the attention of the reader and interfere with his grasping the argument rapidly. I have accordingly in the present work (as in several previous ones) cleared the text of such obstructive matter, relegating references and minor explanations, illustrations, or discussions, to the notes. The sole exceptions are short references consisting of figures only, and occurring in articles of two or three lines in length. Thus, in the article 'Kauṣārava' (i. 194), the figures (viii. 28) are added in parentheses at the end of the line. To have made a footnote out of these figures alone would have been a pedantic and an absurd application of the general principle.

The notes are placed in two columns, because this arrangement enables the reader to find them more rapidly than any other. They come at the end of, and immediately below, each article. It is only when the article is a long one extending beyond the first page that the notes do not all occupy this position. Those referring to each page are then placed at the foot of that page, and only those referring to the last page come at the end of the article (cf., e.g., I. Aksa).

The headlines are so arranged as to help the reader in finding what he wants quickly, as well as to convey the maximum of information. A glance at the inner corners at the top will show the alphabetical range of the articles occurring in any two pages, the one indicating the first word on the left page, the other the last word on the right page. The rest of the

headline of each page supplies a summary of the contents of that page. I have never been able to find any rational explanation why the title of the book held in one's hand should be printed at the top of at least half, sometimes of all, the pages it contains. How this practice can possibly assist the reader is hard to understand.

Typographical Details.—Every Sanskrit word used as the title of an article is printed in thick type for the purpose of catching the eye of the reader more readily. Every such word mentioned in another article is on its first occurrence there similarly printed. This is both a simpler and a clearer way of referring to a word used in another place than the employment of parentheses and additional words or abbreviations, like 'see' or 'cf.,' which tend to distract the attention of the reader (see, e.g., Agastya). Both Sanskrit names (including titles of books) and ordinary Sanskrit terms used as English words are printed in Roman type, but then always with a capital (e.g., Purohita). Italic type is employed for Sanskrit words quoted as such, for expressions from other languages such as Latin or French, for the titles of all except Sanskrit books (e.g., Oldenberg, Buddha), and even of Sanskrit books when a particular edition is intended (thus Roth, Nirukta, but Yāska, Nirukta). English words are italicized only when in long articles the titles of subdivisions are given. All these uses of italics will be found exemplified in the articles 2. Aksa and 3. Aksa.

As regards numerals, Roman figures are employed to indicate the main divisions of a work, the subordinate parts being expressed by Arabic figures. Thus 'Rigveda, ii. 3, 5,' means 'book 2, hymn 3, verse 5.' The volume, on the other hand, is referred to by an Arabic numeral, the following figure indicating the page. Thus 'Max Müller, Rgveda, 2, 135' means 'volume 2 of Max Müller's edition of the Rigveda, page 135.'

I have avoided abbreviating the titles of books or journals even when they occur often, or are mentioned in the notes

only. Contracted titles are as a rule intelligible to the general reader only by reference to an explanatory list appearing at the beginning or the end of a book. When a work is written consecutively, such an abbreviation can be looked up on its first occurrence, and as it is usually met with again at short intervals its explanation will be remembered. But in a book arranged in dictionary form, the occurrence of abridged titles becomes irksome to the reader because he meets them at any part of the book he opens, and often many at the same time; he will probably therefore be continually consulting the explanatory list. Hence I have only admitted the contractions 'Rv.' for Rigveda and 'Av.' for Atharvaveda, as these texts are constantly referred to, often several times in the same article. In some works, such as the Encyclopædia of Indo-Aryan Research, excessively contracted titles, frequently assuming the appearance of algebraic symbols, become necessary owing to the great mass of bibliographical references required. In the present work such economy of space was in no way called for. If, however, the book had been intended for the use of Sanskrit scholars only, I should certainly have shortened many titles here given in full, for there are numerous formulaic abbreviations that are familiar to all specialists.

Transliteration.—The system here followed is that which has been adopted by the Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland, and is generally employed elsewhere also. The chief difficulties caused to the non-scholar by this method of reproducing Sanskrit words are due, on the one hand, to the inadequacy of the Roman alphabet, which necessitates the use of diacritical marks, and, on the other, to the conventional use of two consonants in English, in certain cases, to represent a single sound, as ch, sh, ph, and th. The letter s here is the equivalent of sh in 'shun'; s is somewhat thinner in pronunciation, like the ss in 'session'; sh resembles the sh in the French 'bon'; and sh the German sh in 'ach.' The palatal sh is to be sounded like the initial sh in Churchill; sh has an

aspirate sound like that of the ch in the middle of the same word; ph and th are also aspirates, as in the English 'up-hill' and 'ant-hill' respectively. The vowels must all be pronounced as in Italian: short when unmarked (except e and o, which are always long), long when they have a horizontal stroke above; thus i is sounded as in 'pin,' $\bar{\imath}$ like ee in 'seen.' The vowel r may be pronounced like ri in 'risk.'

The Map.—In order that the reader may be enabled to visualize in a general way the territory known to and occupied by the Vedic tribes, I have prefixed to the first volume a map of Vedic India. Here the home of the Indo-Aryans of the earliest period-that of the Rigveda-is the territory drained by the Indus river system, lying between the 35th and 28th parallel of northern latitude and between 70° and 78° eastern longitude, and corresponding roughly to the North-West Frontier Province and the Panjab of the present day. The eastern limit was probably the Yamunā, though the Ganges was already known. In the subsequent Vedic period-that of the later Vedas and of the Brāhmanas-the Indo-Āryan settlers gradually occupied the whole of the Ganges Valley down to the delta of that river. But the home of the fully developed culture of the Brahmanas lay in the territory extending in a south-easterly direction from longitude 74° to 85° between the confluence of the Sarasvatī and Drsadvatī in the west and that of the Sadanira and Ganges on the east, and embracing roughly the south-eastern portion of the Panjab and the United Provinces of to-day. East of longitude 85° lay, to the north and south of the Ganges, the imperfectly Brahminized country corresponding to the modern Tirhut and Bihar, where Buddhism arose at the end of the Vedic period.

I ought to warn readers against placing too much reliance on the details of this map, because it is largely conjectural owing to the lack of precise geographical statement in the texts. The student, when using it, should always refer to the evidence furnished by the articles under each name that appears

on the map. The identification of many of the Vedic rivers with those of modern India is certain; but even here the exact channels in which they flowed in ancient times is doubtful. Thus the Indus, some of the Panjab rivers, and the old Sarasvatī have been shown by Raverty, in an article in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal for 1892, to have changed their courses considerably, even within historical times. must be remembered that all the rivers of Vedic India traversed the alluvial plains of the north, and were, therefore, unlike the rivers of the Deccan, which flow in rocky beds, liable to constant fluctuations in their channels. Again, the Vedic tribes are nearly always mentioned so vaguely in the texts that they can only be approximately located by the rivers with which they are connected, or by the way in which their names are associated or grouped. Many such names had to be omitted altogether in the map because of the total lack of evidence for their localization. Some help may be obtained from the geographical position in the post-Vedic period of tribes mentioned in Vedic literature. But this evidence is apt to be doubtful, because the Vedic period was largely one of migration, and various tribes may then have occupied localities much farther north or west than those in which they were later permanently settled. The general evidence of the map, however uncertain many of the details may be, leaves no room for doubt as to the route by which the Aryans entered India, or as to the direction of the successive stages of the migration by which they eventually spread their civilization over the whole of the peninsula.

Conclusion.—The first volume was ready for issue more than a year ago, but to publish it without the indexes, which would necessarily have to appear at the end of the second volume, seemed to me to be perfectly useless. I therefore preferred to wait till the whole book could be brought out in a complete form. As both Dr. Keith and myself have each read one proof and nearly always two revises of every sheet before it went to

press, all but trivial errors and misprints ought to have been eliminated. I hope, however, that these two volumes will prove to be not only correct in form, but also valuable in matter, after our joint efforts to bring together and present their contents in a convenient and trustworthy manner.

A. A. MACDONELL.

OXFORD, July 18, 1912.

Order of the Sanskrit Alphabet.

aāiīu \bar{u} r \bar{r} l; eaioau; k kh g gh, n; c ch j jh \tilde{n} ; t th d dh n; t th d dh n; p ph b bh m; y r l v; \acute{s} \acute{s} s h.

VEDIC INDEX OF NAMES AND SUBJECTS.

Amśu.-1. Name of a protégé of the Aśvins in the Rigveda.1 2. Dhānamjayya, pupil of Amāvāsya Śāndilyāyana, according to the Vamsa Brāhmana.2

1 viii. 5, 26. Cf. Ludwig, Transla- | 129, suggests that he may be identical tion of the Rigveda, 3, 160; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 89; Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda,

with Khela.

2 Indische Studien, 4, 373.

Amhasas-pati.—This is the name of the intercalary month in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā (vii. 30; xxii. 31). See Māsa.

Akra.—In several passages of the Rigveda¹ this word means, according to Geldner,2 'horse.' Roth3 suggests that 'riding horse' is the precise sense. Cf. Aśva.

1 i. 143, 7; 189, 7; iii. 1, 12; iv. 6, 3; | x. 77, 2. 2 Vedische Studien, 1,'168, 169.

3 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 118. Cf. Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 414.

I. Akṣa, 'axle,' is a part of a chariot often referred to in the Rigveda 1 and later. It was apparently 2 fastened to the body of the chariot (Kośa) by straps (akṣā-nah, lit. 'tied to the axle,' though this word is also3 rendered 'horse'). heating of the axle and the danger of its breaking were known.4 The part of the axle round which the nave of the wheel revolved was called Ani, 'pin.'

¹ i. 30, 14; 166, 9; iii. 53, 17; vi. 24, 3; x. 89, 4, etc.

² Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 246.

³ Rv. x. 53, 7. Cf. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

⁴ Rv. i. 164, 13.

- 2. Akṣa.—This word occurs frequently, from the Rigveda onwards, both in the singular and plural, meaning 'die' and 'dice.' Dicing, along with horse-racing, was one of the main amusements of the Vedic Indian; but, despite the frequent mention of the game in the literature, there is considerable difficulty in obtaining any clear picture of the mode in which it was played.
- (1) The Material.—The dice appear normally to have been made of Vibhīdaka nuts. Such dice are alluded to in both the Rigveda¹ and the Atharvaveda,² hence being called 'brown' (babhru), and 'born on a windy spot.'³ In the ritual game of dice at the Agnyādheya and the Rājasūya ceremonies the material of the dice is not specified, but it is possible that occasionally gold imitations of Vibhīdaka nuts were used.⁴ There is no clear trace in the Vedic literature of the later use of cowries as dice.⁵
- (2) The Number.—In the Rigveda 6 the dicer is described as 'leader of a great horde' (senānīr mahato gaṇasya), and in another passage 7 the number is given as tri-pañcāśaḥ, an expression which has been variously interpreted. Ludwig, 8 Weber, 9 and Zimmer 10 render it as fifteen, which is grammatically hardly possible. Roth 11 and Grassmann 12 render it as 'consisting of fifty-three.' Lüders 13 takes it as 'consisting of one hundred and fifty,' but he points out that this may be merely a vague expression for a large number. For a small number Zimmer 14 cites a reference in the Rigveda 15 to one who fears 'him who holds four' (caturaś cid dadamānāt), but the sense of that passage is dependent on the view taken of the method of playing the game.
 - (3) The Method of Play.-In several passages of the later

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<sup>1</sup> vii. 86, 6; x. 34, 1.

<sup>2</sup> Av. Paipp. xx. 4, 6.
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³ Rv. x. 34, 5; Av. vii. 114, 7; Rv. x. 34, 1.

Sāyaņa on Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 8, 6, 12; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 4, 4, 6.

Sayana, loc. cit., and on Rv. i. 41, 9; Mahidhara on Vajasaneyi Samhita, x. 28.

⁶ x. 34, 12.

⁷ x. 34, 8.

⁸ See his translation.

⁹ Über das Rājāsūya, 72.

¹⁰ Altindisches Leben, 284.

¹¹ Following Sāyaṇa on Rv. x. 34, 8.

¹² In his translation.

¹³ Das Würfelspiel im alten Indien, 25.

¹⁴ Op. cit., 283.

¹⁵ i. 41, 9.

Samhitās and Brāhmaņas lists are given of expressions connected with dicing. The names are Krta, Treta, Dvapara, Askanda, and Abhibhū in the Taittirīya Samhitā.16 In the Vājasaneyi Samhitā,17 among the victims at the Purusamedha, the kitava is offered to the Aksarāja, the ādinava-darśa to the Kṛta, the kalpin to the Tretā, the adhi-kalpin to the Dvāpara, the sabhā-sthānu to the Askanda. The lists in the parallel version of the Taittirīya Brāhmana are kitava, sabhāvin, ādinavadarśa, bahih-sad, and sabhā-sthānu,18 and Aksarāja, Krta, Tretā, Dvāpara, and Kali. From the Satapatha Brāhmana 19 it appears that another name of Kali was Abhibhū, and the parallel lists in the Taittirīya and Vājasaneyi Samhitās suggest that Abhibhū and Aksaraja are identical, though both appear in the late Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa list. The names of some of these throws go back even to the Rigveda and the Atharvaveda. Kali occurs in the latter.20 and Lüders21 shows that in a considerable number of passages in the former Krta means a 'throw' (not 'a stake '22 or 'what is won'23), and this sense is clearly found in the Atharvaveda.24 Moreover, that there were more throws (ayāh) than one is proved by a passage in the Rigveda,25 when the gods are compared to throws as giving or destroying wealth.

The nature of the throws is obscure. The St. Petersburg Dictionary conjectures that the names given above were applied either to dice marked 4, 3, 2, or 1, or to the sides of the dice so marked, and the latter interpretation is supported by some late commentators.²⁶ But there is no evidence for the former interpretation, and, as regards the latter, the shape of the Vibhīdaka nuts,²⁷ used as dice, forbids any side being properly on the top. Light is thrown on the expressions by the descrip-

¹⁶ iv. 3, 3, 1. 2.

¹⁷ xxx. 18.

¹⁸ iii. 4, 1, 16. These must be persons conversant with dicing, but the exact sense of the names is unknown.

¹⁹ v. 4, 4, 6.

²⁰ vii. 114, I.

²¹ Op. cit., 43 et seq.

²² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

²³ Grassmann's Dictionary, s.v.

²⁴ vii. 52. See Rv. x. 42, 9 (kṛtaṃ vicinoti); 43,5; x. 102, 2; v. 60, 1; ix. 97, 58; i. 132, 1; x. 34,6; i. 100,9; viii. 19, 10.

²⁵ x. 116, 9.

M Anandagiri on Chandogya Upanişad, iv. 1. 4; Nilakantha on Mahabharata, iv. 50, 24.

²⁷ Lüders, op. cit., 18.

tion of a ritual game ²⁸ at the Agnyādheya and at the Rājasūya ceremonies. The details are not certain, ²⁹ but it is clear that the game consisted in securing even numbers of dice, usually a number divisible by four, the Kṛta, the other three throws then being the Tretā, when three remained over after division by four; the Dvāpara, when two was the remainder; and the Kali, when one remained. If five were the dividing number, then the throw which showed no remainder was Kali, the Kṛta was that when four was left, and so on. The dice had no numerals marked on them, the only question being what was the total number of the dice themselves.

There is no reason to doubt that the game as played in the Rigveda was based on the same principle, though the details must remain doubtful. The number of dice used was certainly large,30 and the reference to throwing fours,31 and losing by one, points to the use of the Krta as the winning throw. The Atharvaveda,32 on the other hand, possibly knew of the Kali as the winning throw. In one respect the ordinary game must have differed from the ritual game. In the latter the players merely pick out the number of dice required—no doubt to avoid ominous errors, such as must have happened if a real game had been played. In the secular game the dice were thrown,33 perhaps on the principle suggested by Lüders:34 the one throwing a certain number on the place of playing, and the other then throwing a number to make up with those already thrown a multiple of four or five. This theory, at any rate, accounts for the later stress laid on the power of computation in a player, as in the Nala.

No board appears to have been used, but a depression on which

²⁸ Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, ii. 8; 9; Āpastamba Śrauta Sūtra, v. 19, 4; 20, 1, with Rudradatta's note, for the Agnyādheya. Āpastamba, xviii. 18, 16 et seq., describes the Rājasūya game, and ef. Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iv. 4, 6; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, v. 4, 4, 6; Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 7, 5 et seq. For Kṛta as four, see Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 3, 2, 1; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 5, 11, 1.

²⁹ See Caland, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 62, 123 et seq.

³⁰ Rv. x. 34, 8.

³¹ Rv. i. 41, 9. In x. 34, 2, the loss is ascribed to ahsasya chaparasya, which confirms the explanation of Dvāpara given in Pāṇini, ii. 1, 10.

³² vii. 114, 1.

³³ Rv. x. 34, 1. 8. 9; Av. iv. 38, 3.

³¹ Op. cit. 56.

the dice were thrown (adhi-devana, devana, 35 irina 36), was made in the ground. No dice box was used, but reference is made to a case for keeping dice in (akṣā-vapana 37). The throw was called graha 38 or earlier grābha. 30 The stake is called vij. 40 Serious losses could be made at dicing: in the Rigveda a dicer laments the loss of all his property, including his wife. 41 Lüders 42 finds a different form of the game referred to in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad. 43

35 Adhidevana in Av. v. 31, 6; vi. 70, 1; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, i. 6, 11; iv. 4, 6, etc.; dēvana in Rv. x. 43, 5. The falling of the dice on the ground is referred to in Av. vii. 114, 2.

36 Rv. x. 34, 1.

37 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 3, 1, 11.

18 Av. iv. 38, 1 et seq. ; cf. vii. 114, 5.

39 Rv. viii. 81, 1; ix. 106, 3.

40 Rv. i. 92, 10; ii. 12, 5; laksa in ii. 12, 4, and often dhana. So Lüders, op. cit., 10, n. 5; 62, n. 1. Roth and Zimmer, op. cit., 286, render 'he makes the dice secretly disappear' (i. 92, 10).

41 Rv. x. 34, 2. For cheating at

play cf. Rv. v, 85, 8; vii. 86, 6; 104 14; Av. vi. 118.

42 Op. cit., 61.

43 iv. 1, 4; 6. According to Nîlakantha on Harivamsa, ii. 61, 39, the stake was divided into ten parts, and the Kali then took one, the Dvāpara three, the Tretā six, and the Kṛta all ten. This explanation seems harsh.

Cf. Roth, Gurupūjākaumudī, 1-4; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 283-287; Lüders, Das Würfelspiel im alten Indien; Caland, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 62, 123 et seq.; Keith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1908, 823 et seq.

3. Akṣa.—In the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (vii. 3, 1) this word seems to denote the nut of the Vibhīdaka (Terminalia bellerica).

Akṣata or Akṣita.—In one passage of the Atharvaveda,¹ dealing with the Jāyānya, mention is made of a remedy for sores designated both Akṣita and Sukṣata, or, according to the reading of the Kauṣika Sūtra, Akṣata and Sukṣata, while Sāyaṇa has Akṣita and Sukṣita. Bloomfield² renders 'not caused by cutting' and 'caused by cutting.' Formerly³ he suggested 'tumour' or 'boil.' Whitney⁴ thinks that two varieties of Jāyānya are meant. Ludwig⁵ reads with Sāyaṇa akṣita, which he renders by 'not firmly established' in the invalid. Zimmer⁶ finds in it a disease Ksata.

¹ vii. 76, 4.

[&]quot; Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 17, 562.

³ Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, exvii. et seq.

⁴ Translation of the Atharvaveda, 442.

⁵ Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 500. ⁶ Allindisches Leben, 377.

Akṣā-vapana. See Akṣa.

Akṣu.—The word occurs in two passages of the Atharvaveda¹ and one of the Rigveda.² Roth³ renders it by 'net,' while Böhtlingk⁴ suggests 'axle of a car.' Geldner⁵ sees in it a stake or pole used with a fishermen's net (Jāla),⁶ the pole of a wagon,⁶ and the pole of a house, whether vertical or horizontal, he leaves uncertain (see Vaṃśa).⁵ Bloomfield⁵ takes it as a covering of wickerwork stretched across a beam and sloping down to both sides—like a thatched roof, and this best explains the epithet 'thousand-eyed' (i.e., with countless holes) ascribed to it. In the other Atharvaveda passage¹o he accepts the sense 'net,' and doubts if the word in the Rigveda is not an adjective (a-kṣu) as it is taken by Sāyaṇa. See also Gṛha.

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<sup>1</sup> viii. 8, 18 (akşujālābhyām); ix. 3, 18.

<sup>2</sup> i. 180, 5.
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Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 153, 265; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 506, 526; Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 179.

Agasti.—This form of Agastya's name occurs once in the Atharvaveda, where he appears as a favourite of Mitra and Varuna.

1 iv. 9, 3. Cf. Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 127, n. 5.

Agastya.—This is the name of a sage, of mythical character, who plays a great part in the later literature. He was a Māna,¹ and therefore is called Mānya² and son of Māna, and only once is there a reference³ to the legend prevalent in later times that he was a son of Mitra and Varuṇa.

His greatest feat was the reconciliation of Indra and the Maruts after Indra had been annoyed at his proposing to give the Maruts an offering to the exclusion of Indra. This feat is the subject of three hymns of the Rigveda, and is often referred

³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

⁴ Dictionary, s.v.

⁵ Vedische Studien, 1, 136.

⁶ Av. viii. 8, 18.

⁷ Av. i. 180, 5.

⁸ ix. 3, 18.

⁹ Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 598.

¹⁰ Av. viii. 8, 18.

¹ Rv. vii. 33, 10 (Agastya), 13 (Māna).

² Rv. i. 165, 15=166, 15=167, 11=
168, 10; 165, 14; 177, 5; 184, 4 (Mānya);
i. 189, 8; 117, 11 (Mānasya sūnu).

³ Rv. vii. 33, 13. Cf. Geldner, Vedische Studien, 2, 138 et seq.

⁴ Rv. i. 165; 170; 171.

to in the Brāhmaṇas,⁶ though the exact details and significance of the legend are variously treated by Oldenberg,⁶ Sieg,⁷ Hertel,⁸ and von Schroeder.⁹

He also appears in a strange dialogue with Lopāmudrā in the Rigveda, ¹⁰ which appears to show him as an ascetic who finally yields to temptation. Von Schroeder ¹¹ regards it as a ritual drama of vegetation magic.

In another passage of the Rigveda¹² he appears as helping in the Aśvins' gift of a leg to Viśpalā. Sāyaṇa holds that he was the Purohita of Khela, and Sieg¹³ accepts this view, while Pischel¹⁴ thinks that Khela is a deity, Vivasvant.

Geldner 15 shows from the Rigveda 10 that Agastya, as brother of Vasiṣṭha—both being miraculous sons of Mitra and Varuṇa—introduces Vasiṣṭha to the Tṛtsus. There are two other references to Agastya in the Rigveda, the one 17 including him in a long list of persons, the other alluding to his sister's sons (nadbhyaḥ), 18 apparently Bandhu, etc. In the Atharvaveda 19 he appears as connected with witchcraft, and in a long list of sages. 20 In the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā 21 cows, with a peculiar mark on their ears (viṣṭya-karṇyaḥ), are associated with him.

⁵ Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 5, 5, 2; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 7, 11, 1; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, ii. 1, 8; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, x. 11; Pañcaviṃsa Brāhmaņa, xxi. 14, 5; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, v. 16; Kausītaki Brāhmana, xxvi. 9.

⁶ Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 39, 60 et seq.

- Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 108-119.
 Vienna Oriental Journal, 18, 152-154.
- ⁹ Mysterium und Mimus im Rigveda, 91 et seq.
- ¹⁰ i. 179. Cf. Sieg, op. cit., 120-126; Oldenberg, op. cit., 66-68.
 - 11 Op. cit., 156-172.
 - 12 i. 117, 11; cf. i. 116, 15.
 - 13 Op. cit., 128.
 - 11 Vedische Studien, 1, 171-173.

- 15 Vedische Studien, 2, 138, 143.
- ¹⁶ Rv. vii. 33, 10. 13.
- ¹⁷ vii. 5, 26. Sieg, 129, suggests that this refers to the Khela legend.
 - 18 x. 60, 6.
- 19 ii. 32, 3; iv. 37, 1. Perhaps for this reason the Rigveda Anukramani ascribes to him (Rv. i. 191) a magic hymn.
 - ²⁰ xviii. 3, 15.
 - ²¹ iv. 2, 9.
- Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 117; Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 106-129; Macdonell, Brhaddevatā, 2, 136 et seq.; Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 221; Rgveda-Noten, 1, 110.

Agāra.—This rare word is found as 'house' in the Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad.¹

¹ ii. 15. Cf. āgara, 'chamber' (?), | the Atharvaveda, 407. Agāra occurs n Av. iv. 36, 3; Bloomfield, Hymns of | also in Āsvalāyana Grhya Sūtra, i. 7, 21.

Agni-dagdha.—This epithet ('burnt with fire')¹ applies to the dead who were burned on the funeral pyre. This is one of the two normal methods of disposing of the dead, the other being burial (an-agnidagdhāḥ, 'not burnt with fire').² The Atharvaveda³ adds two further modes of disposal to those—viz., casting out (paroptāḥ), and the exposure of the dead (uddhitāḥ). The exact sense of these expressions is doubtful. Zimmer⁴ considers that the former is a parallel to the Iranian practice of casting out the dead to be devoured by beasts, and that the latter refers to the old who are exposed when helpless.⁵ Whitney⁶ refers the latter expression to the exposure of the dead body on a raised platform of some sort.

Burial was clearly not rare in the Rigvedic period: a whole hymn7 describes the ritual attending it. The dead man was buried apparently in full attire, with his bow in his hand, and probably at one time his wife was immolated to accompany him, in accordance with a practice common among savage tribes. But in the Vedic period both customs appear in a modified form: the son takes the bow from the hand of the dead man, and the widow is led away from her dead husband by his brother or other nearest kinsman. A stone is set between the dead and the living to separate them. In the Atharvaveda,8 but not in the Rigveda, a coffin (vrksa) is alluded to. In both Samhitās occur other allusions to the 'house of earth' ($bh\bar{u}mi$ -grha). To remove the apparent discrepancy between burning and burial, by assuming that the references to burial are to the burial of the burned bones, as does Oldenberg,10 is unnecessary and improbable, as burning and burial subsisted side by side in Greece for many years.

Burning was, however, equally usual, and it grew steadily in frequency, for in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad¹¹ the adornment

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¹ Rv. x. 15, 14; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 1, 1, 7; dagdhāḥ, Av. xviii. 2, 34.
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² Rv., loc. cit.; = nikhātāḥ, Av. xviii. 2, 34.

³ Loc. cit.

¹ Altindisches Leben, 402.

⁵ Rv. viii. 51, 2.

⁶ Translation of the Atharvaveda, 841. ⁷ x. 18. The interpretation of v. 8 is

a famous crux, see Patni.

⁸ xviii. 2, 25; 3, 70.

⁹ Rv. vii. 89, 1; Av. v. 30, 14; xviii. 2, 52.

¹⁰ Religion des Veda, 571.

¹¹ viii. 8, 5.

of the body of the dead with curd (Āmikṣā), clothes, and ornaments, in order to win the next world, is referred to as something erroneous and wrong, and in the funeral Mantras of the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā 12 only burning seems to be contemplated; the verses which refer to burial here really alluding to the burial of the ashes in the burying-ground (śmaśāna). The body was wrapped in fat, 14 as we learn from the funeral hymn in the Rigveda, a goat being apparently burned with it, 15 to act as a guide on the way to the next world. According to the Atharvaveda 16 a draft-ox was burned presumably for the dead to ride with in the next world. It was expected that the dead would revive with his whole body and all his limbs (sarva-tanūḥ sāngaḥ), 17 although it is also said 18 that the eye goes to the sun, the breath to the wind, and so forth.

Before burial or burning, the corpse was washed, 10 a clog $(k\bar{u}d\bar{\iota})$ being tied to the foot to prevent the deceased returning to earth. 20

12 xxxv. Cf. also Kauśika Sūtra, 80 ct seq., which treats the Atharvaveda hymns, xviii. 1-3, as intended for burning only.

¹³ Av. v. 31, 8; x. 1, 18; Taittirīya

Samhitā, v. 2, 8, 5; 4, 11, 3.

14 Rv. x. 16, 7.

¹⁵ Rv. x. 16, 4. But *aja* may mean 'the unborn part,' as Weber prefers to take it, Proceedings of the Berlin Academy, 1895, 847.

16 xii. 2, 48.

17 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 6, 1, 1; xi. 1, 8, 6; xii. 8, 3, 31. Cf. Av. xi. 3, 32. This fact probably explains the use of sesah in Rv. x. 16, 5. The dead enjoy sexual pleasures in the next world; see Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 5, 307, n. 462.

18 Rv. x. 16, 3.

19 Av. v. 19, 14.

20 Av. v. 19, 12; see Roth, Festgruss an Böhtlingk, 98; Bloomfield, American

Journal of Philology, 12, 416.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 401-407; Roth, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 8, 468 et seq.; Siebenzig Lieder, 150 et seq.; Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 570 et seq.; Caland, Die altindischen Todten- und Bestattungsgebräuche; von Schroeder, Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 40-42; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythology, 3, 413-423; Rituallitteratur, 87 et seq.; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, 165, 166; Proceedings of the Berlin Academy, 1895, 815 et seq.

Agni-bhū Kāsyapa is mentioned in the Vaṃsa Brāhmaṇa¹ as a pupil of Indrabhū Kāsyapa.

1 Indische Studien, 4, 374.

Agni-śāla.—This term, which designates part of the sacrificial

apparatus,1 is applied in the Atharvaveda2 to a part of an ordinary house, presumably the central hall where the fireplace was.

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1 Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 18.
2 ix. 3, 7.
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Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 598; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 154.

Aghā.—In the wedding hymn of the Rigveda1 it is said that cows are slain in the Aghās, and the wedding takes place at the Arjunīs (dual). The Atharvaveda2 has the ordinary Maghās instead. It is impossible to resist the conclusion that the reading of the Rigveda was deliberately altered because of the connection of the slaughter of kine with sin (agha)-possibly, too, with a further desire to emphasize the contrast with aghnyā, a name for 'cow.' Moreover, in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa3 occurs the formula 'Svāhā to the Maghās, Svāhā to the Anaghās.' See also Nakṣatra.

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1 x. 85, 13.
2 xiv. 1, 13.
<sup>3</sup> iii. 1, 4, 8.
Cf. Weber, Naxatra, 2, 364; Pro-
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804; Jacobi, Festgruss an Roth, 69; Winternitz, Das altindische Hochzeitsrituell, 32; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 742; Thibaut, Indian ceedings of the Berlin Academy, 1894, Antiquary, 24, 95.

Aghāśva.—The name of a serpent in the Atharvaveda.1 1 x. 4, 10. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 95.

A-ghnyā.—See Māmsa.

Anka.—The Taittirīya Samhitā1 and Brāhmana2 refer to two Ankas and two Nyankas as parts of a chariot. The meaning of these terms is quite obscure. The commentators refer them to the sides or wheels. Zimmer³ compares the Greek ἄντυγες⁴ and thinks that the Ankau were the upper border of the body of the chariot (kośa, vandhura), and the Nyankau the lower rims for greater security. Oldenberg⁵ confesses that the exact sense is impossible to make out, but considers that the terms at once refer to parts of the chariot and to divinities, while Böhtlingk⁶ takes the term as referring to divinities alone.

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1 i. 7, 7, 2.
 2 ii. 7, 8, 1. Cf. Pañcaviņsa Brāh-
mana, i. 7, 5.
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³ Altindisches Leben, 251, 252.

⁴ Iliad, v. 728. Cf. Smith's Dictionary of Antiquities, 1, 578.

⁵ Sacred Books of the East, 29, 364, on Paraskara Grhya Sūtra, iii. 14, 6.

⁶ Dictionary, s.v.

Anga.—The name occurs only once in the Atharvaveda1 in connection with the Gandharis, Mujavants, and Magadhas, as distinct peoples. They appear also in the Gopatha Brāhmaṇa² in the compound name Anga-magadhāh. As in later times they were settled on the Sone and Ganges,3 their earlier seat was presumably there also. See also Vanga.

1 v. 22, I4.

2 ii. 9. 3 Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 35; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda,

Asiatic Society, 1908, 852, inclines to regard them as a non-Aryan people that came over-sea to Eastern India. There is nothing in the Vedic litera-446, 449; Pargiter, Journal of the Royal ture to throw light on this hypothesis.

Anga Vairocana.—He is included in the list of anointed kings in the Aitareva Brāhmana.1 His Purohita was Udamaya, an Ātreya.

1 viii, 22. Cf. Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 214.

Angārāvakṣayaṇa.—A word of doubtful meaning found in the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad.1 It is rendered 'tongs' by Max Müller and Böhtlingk in their translations. The St. Petersburg Dictionary explains it as 'a vessel in which coals are extinguished,' and Monier-Williams as 'an instrument for extinguishing coals.' The smaller St. Petersburg Dictionary renders the word 'coal-shovel or tongs.' Cf. Ulmukāvaksayana. 1 iii. 9, 18.

Angiras.—The Angirases appear in the Rigveda¹ as semimythical beings, and no really historical character can be assigned even to those passages2 which recognize a father of the race. Angiras. Later, however, there were definite families of Angirases, to whose ritual practices (ayana, dvirātra) references

are made.3

1 Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, ii. 156-169.

2 Rv. i. 45, 3; 139, 9; iii. 31, 7, etc.; Chandogya Upanisad, i, 2, 10.

3 Av. xviii. 4, 8, but this may be mythical; Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa, xx. 11, 1; Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 1, 4, 1. Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, 142, 143.

Angustha.—As a measure of size this word appears in the Kāthaka Upanisad (iv. 12; vi. 17).

A-cyut.—He acted as Pratihartr at the Sattra celebrated by the Vibhindukīyas and described in the Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa.¹

1 iii. 233. See Journal of the American Oriental Society, 18, 38.

Aja, Ajā.—This is the ordinary name for goat in the Rigveda¹ and the later literature. The goat is also called Basta, Chāga, Chagala. Goats and sheep (ajāvayal) are very frequently mentioned together.² The female goat is spoken of as producing two or three kids,³ and goat's milk is well known.⁴ The goat as representative of Pūṣan plays an important part in the ritual of burial.⁵ The occupation of a goatherd (ajapāla) was a recognized one, being distinguished from that of a cowherd and of a shepherd.⁵

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<sup>1</sup> Aja in Rv. x. 16, 4; i. 162, 2. 4;
Av. ix. 5, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxi.
9, etc.; ajā in Rv. viii. 70, 15; Av. vi.
71, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiii., 56, etc.
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⁵ Rv. x. 16, 4, etc. Cf. p. 9.

Aja.—The Ajas are named in one verse of the Rigveda¹ as having been defeated by the Tṛtsus under Sudās. They are there mentioned with the Yakṣus and Śigrus, and Zimmer² conjectures that they formed part of a confederacy under Bheda against Sudās. The name has been regarded as a sign of totemism,³ but this is very uncertain, and it is impossible to say if they were or were not Āryans.

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1 vii. 18, 19.

2 Altindisches Leben, 127. Cf. Ludwig,
Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 173.
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3 Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology,

153; Keith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1907, 929; Aitareya Āraņyaka, 200, 21; Risley, Peoples of India, 83 et seq.

Ajakāva.—This name of a poisonous scorpion occurs once in the Rigveda.¹

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1 vii. 50, 1. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 99.
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Aja-gara ('goat-swallower') occurs in the Atharvaveda¹ and in the list of animals at the Asvamedha,² or horse sacrifice, as the

² Rv. x. 90, 10; Av. viii. 7, 25; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, iii. 43, etc.

³ Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 5, 10, 1.

⁴ Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 1, 6, 1; v. 1, 7, 4. Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 3, 364, n. 4.

⁶ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 11; Taittiriya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 9, 1.

xi. 2, 25; xx. 129, 17.
 Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 19; Vāja Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 14, 1; saneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 38.

name of the boa-constrictor. Elsewhere3 it is called Vāhasa. It denotes a person at the snake feast in the Pañcavimsa Brāhmana.4

4 xxv. 15, in the form of Ajagava, 3 Taittiriya Samhitā, v. 5, 13, 1; 1 with which cf. Ajakāva. Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 34.

Aja-mīdha.—The Ājamīdhas, or descendants of Ajamīdha, are referred to in a hymn of the Rigveda.1 Ludwig2 and Oldenberg3 deduce from the use of this patronymic that Ajamīdha was the seer of that hymn.

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3 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenlan-
2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 123,
                                         dischen Gesellschaft, 42, 215.
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Aja-śrngī.—This plant ('goat's horn'), equated by the commentator with Visāṇin (the Odina pinnata), is celebrated as a demon-destroyer in the Atharvaveda.1 Its other name is Arātakī.2 Weber3 suggests that it is the Prosopis spicigera or Mimosa suma.

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Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda,
1 iv. 37.
                                          408, 409; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben,
<sup>2</sup> iv. 37, 6.
                                   Cf. 68; Caland, Altindisches Zauberritual, 89.
3 Indische Studien, 18, 144.
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Ajāta-satru.—He is mentioned as a King of Kāśī (Kāśya) in the Brhadaranyaka1 and Kausītaki2 Upanisads, where he instructs the proud Brāhmaṇa Bālāki as to the real nature of the self. He is not to be identified with the Ajātasattu of the Buddhist texts.3

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Hoernle, Ostcology, 106; Keith, Zeit-
1 ii. r. r.
                                       schrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen
2 iv. I.
3 Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 213; Gesellschaft, 62, 138.
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Ajňāta-yaksma, the 'unknown sickness,' is mentioned in the Rigveda,1 Atharvaveda,2 and Kāthaka Samhitā.3 It is referred to in connection with Rajayaksma. Grohmann4 thinks that the two are different forms of disease, hypertrophy and atrophy, the purpose of the spell in the Rigveda being thus the removal of all disease. From the Atharvaveda⁵ he deduces its identity with Balasa. Zimmer,6 however, points out that this

6 Altindisches Leben, 377, 378.

Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Athar-

vaveda, 342; Atharvaveda, 60; Jolly,

Medicin (in Bühler's Encyclopædia),

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1 x. 161, 1 = Av. iii. 11, 1.
2 vi. 127, 3.
3 xiii. 16.
4 Indische Studien, 9, 400.
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⁵ vi. 127, 3.

conclusion is unjustified, leaving the disease unidentified, which seems to accord with its name.

Ajina.—This word denotes generally the skin of an animal—e.g., a gazelle,¹ as well as that of a goat (Aja).² The use of skins as clothing is shown by the adjective 'clothed in skins' (ajina-vāsin) in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,³ and the furrier's trade is mentioned in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā.⁴ The Maruts also wear deer-skins,⁵ and the wild ascetics (muni) of a late Rigveda hymn ⁵ seem to be clad in skins (Mala).

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1 Av. v. 21, 7.
2 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 2, 1, 21.
3 iii. 9, 1, 12.
4 xxx. 15 (ajina-saṃdha); Taittirīya

Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 13, 1 (ajina-saṃdhāya).
5 Rv. i. 166, 10.
6 x. 136, 2. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches
Leben, 262.
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Ajira.—He was Subrahmaṇya priest at the snake festival of the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.¹

1 xxv. 15. See Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 35.

Ajīgarta Sauyavasa.—This is the name given to the father of Śunaḥśepa in the famous legend of the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,¹ perhaps invented for the occasion, as Weber² suggests.

¹ vii. 15; 17. Cf. Šāńkhāyana Srauta | ² Indische Studien, 1, 460; Roth, St. Sūtra, xv. 19. | Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

A-jyeyatā. See Brāhmana.

Aṇīcin Mauna.—He is mentioned as an authority on ritual, and contemporary with Jābāla and Citra Gauśrāyaṇi or Gauśra, in the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa.¹

1 xxiii. 5.

Aṇu.—This is the designation in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā¹ and the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad² of a cultivated grain, apparently the Panicum miliaceum.

¹ xviii. 12. ² vi. 3, 13 (Kāṇva), where see Dviveda's note.

Atithi ('guest').—A hymn of the Atharvaveda¹ celebrates in detail the merits of hospitality. The guest should be fed before

the host eats, water should be offered to him, and so forth. The Taittirīya Upaniṣad² also lays stress on hospitality, using the expression 'one whose deity is his guest' (atithi-deva). In the Aitareya Āraṇyaka³ it is said that only the good are deemed worthy of receiving hospitality. The guest-offering forms a regular part of the ritual,⁴ and cows were regularly slain in honour of guests.⁵

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    i. 11, 2.
    i. 1, 1.
    Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vii. 3, 2, 1.
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⁵ Cf. Bloomfield, American Journal of Philology, 17, 426; Hillebrandt, Rituallitteratur, 79.

Atithi-gva.—This name occurs frequently in the Rigveda, apparently applying, in nearly all cases, to the same king, otherwise called Divodāsa. The identity of the two persons has been denied by Bergaigne, but is certainly proved by a number of passages, when the two names occur together, in connection with the defeat of Śambara. In other passages Atithigva is said to have assisted Indra in slaying Parnaya and Karañja. Sometimes he is only vaguely referred to, while once he is mentioned as an enemy of Turvasa and Yadu. Again Atithigva is coupled with Ayu and Kutsa as defeated by Tūrvayāna.

A different Atithigva appears to be referred to in a Danastuti⁷ ('Praise of Gifts'), where his son, Indrota, is mentioned.

Roth⁸ distinguishes three Atithigvas—the Atithigva Divodāsa, the enemy of Parṇaya and Karañja, and the enemy of Tūrvayāṇa. But the various passages can be reconciled, especially if it is admitted that Atithigva Divodāsa was already an ancient hero in the earliest hymns, and was becoming almost mythical.

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<sup>1</sup> Religion Védique, 2, 342 et seq.

<sup>2</sup> Rv. i. 51, 6; 112, 14; 130, 7;

iv. 26, 3; vi. 47, 22.

<sup>3</sup> Rv. i. 53, 8; x. 48, 8.
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4 Rv. vi. 26, 3.

⁵ Rv. vii. 19, 8. There is no ground for assuming the reference here to be to a later Atithigva.

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<sup>6</sup> Rv. i. 53, 10; ii. 14, 7; vi. 18, 13; viii. 53, 2.

<sup>7</sup> Rv. viii. 68, 16, 17.
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8 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 123; Bloomfield, American Journal of Philology, 17, 426, who renders the name 'presenting cows to guests.'

Ati-dhanvan Śaunaka.—He is mentioned as a teacher in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad¹ and the Vaṃsa Brāhmaṇa.²

¹ i. 9, 3.

² Indische Studien, 4, 384.

A-tṛṇāda.—This term ('not eating grass') was applied, according to the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, to a newborn calf.¹

1 i. 5, 2. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 268.

r. Atka.—This word occurs frequently in the Rigveda, but its sense is doubtful. Roth, Grassmann, Ludwig, Zimmer,¹ and others render it as 'garment' in several passages,² when the expressions 'put on' (vyā or prati munc) or 'put off' (munc) are used of it, and when it is said to be 'woven' (vyuta)³ or 'well-fitting' (surabhi).⁴ On the other hand, Pischel⁵ denies that this sense occurs, and otherwise explains the passages. He takes the term to mean 'axe' in four places.⁶

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1 Altindisches Leben, 262,

2 i. 95, 7; ii. 35, 14; iv. 18, 5;

v. 55, 6; 74, 5; vi. 29, 3; viii. 41, 7;

ix. 101, 14; 107, 13; Sāmaveda,

ii. 1193.
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³ Rv. i. 122, 2.

⁴ Rv. vi. 29, 3; x. 123, 7. ⁵ Vedische Studien, 2, 193-204.

⁶ Rv. v. 55, 6; vi. 33, 3; x. 49, 3; 99, 9. Cf. Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 94, n. 1.

2. Atka.—In two passages of the Rigveda¹ this word is regarded as a proper name by Roth, Grassmann, and Ludwig. But Zimmer² explains it in these passages as the 'armour of a warrior as a whole,' and Pischel³ thinks that in both cases an 'axe' is meant.

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1 x. 49, 3; 99, 9.
2 Altindisches Leben, 262, 297.
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3 Vedische Studien, 2, 195.

Aty-amhas Āruṇi.—According to the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa (iii. 10, 9, 3-5), this teacher sent a pupil to question Plakṣa Dayyāmpati as to the Sāvitra (a form of Agni). For this impertinence his pupil was severely rebuked.

Aty-arāti Jānam-tapi, though not a prince, was taught the Rājasūya by Vāsiṣṭha Satyahavya, and thereupon conquered the earth. When Vāsiṣṭha reminded him of his indebtedness, and claimed a great reward, the warrior replied irascibly that he intended to conquer the Uttara Kurus, and that Vāsiṣṭha would then become King of the Earth, Atyarāti himself being his general (senā-pati). Vāsiṣṭha replied that as no mortal man could conquer the Uttara Kurus he was cheated of his reward.

He consequently procured Atyarāti's defeat and death at the hands of Amitratapana Susmina Saibya.1

1 Aitareya Brahmana, viii. 23. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 214.

Atri.—Neither Atri himself nor the Atris can claim any historical reality,1 beyond the fact that Mandala V. of the Rigveda is attributed, no doubt correctly, to the family of the Atris.2 The Atris as a family probably stood in close relations with the Priyamedhas3 and Kanvas,4 perhaps also with the Gotamas5 and Kākṣīvatas.6 The mention of both the Paruṣnī and the Yamunā in one hymn⁷ of the fifth Mandala seems to justify the presumption that the family was spread over a wide extent of territory.

1 For Atri in the Rigveda, see Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, 145: Cf. also Av. ii. 32, 3; iv. 29, 3; Mantra Brāhmaņa, ii. 7, 1; Taittirīya Āraņyaka, iv. 36, etc.; Brhadāraņyaka Upanişad,

² Cf. Rv. v. 39, 5; 67, 5; Kausitaki Brāhmaṇa, xxiv. 3; Aitareya Āraṇyaka, ii. 2, 1.

3 Cf. Rv. i. 45, 3; 139, 9; viii. 5, 25; Aitareya Brāhmana, viii. 22.

4 Cf. Rv. i. 118, 7; v. 41, 4; x. 150, 5.

⁵ Cf. Rv. i. 183, 5. 6 Cf. Rv. x. 143, I.

7 Rv. v. 52, 9. 17. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 128, 142; Bergaigne, Religion Védique, 2, 469; Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 212-215; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 3, 310.

Athari.—This word occurs only in the Rigveda,1 and the sense is doubtful. Roth,2 followed by most interpreters, renders it 'point of a lance,' but Pischel' thinks that it means 'an elephant.'

1 iv. 6, 8.

2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

3 Vedische Studien, 1, 99.

Atharvan.—The name in the singular denotes the head of a semi-divine family of mythical priests,1 of whom nothing historical can be said. In the plural the family as a whole is meant. In a few places an actual family seems to be referred to. Thus, for instance, they are mentioned as recipients of gifts in the Danastuti2 ('Praise of Gifts'), of Aśvattha's

141. In the Vamsa of the Brhad- Mrtyu. aranyaka Upanisad, ii. 6, 3, Atharvan | 2 Rv. vi. 47, 24.

1 See Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, | Daiva is characteristically the pupil of

generosity; their use of milk mingled with honey in the ritual is referred to; and a cow that miscarries (ava-tokā) from accident is dedicated to the Atharvans, according to the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa.

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<sup>3</sup> Rv. ix. 11, 2.
<sup>4</sup> iii. 4, 11, 1. Cf. Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 15.
Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Athar-
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vaveda, xxxv. et seq., who (p. xxxviii) takes avatokā as a woman, and the Atharvans as the hymns; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 174 et seq.

Atharvāṇaḥ.—This expression¹ is used with Aṅgirasaḥ, to denote the Atharvaveda. The compound Atharvāṅgirasaḥ is employed in the same sense.

¹ Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 12, 9, 1; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 3, 5 Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xvi. 10, 10; et seq.

Atharvangirasah.—This is the collective name of the Atharvaveda in several passages1 of the later Brāhmanas. It occurs once in the Atharvaveda itself,2 while the term Atharvaveda is not found before the Sūtra period.3 The compound seems, according to Bloomfield,4 to denote the two elements which make up the Atharvaveda. The former part refers to the auspicious practices of the Veda (bhesajāni);5 the latter to its hostile witchcraft, the yātu6 or abhi-cāra.7 This theory is supported by the names of the two mythic personages Ghora Angirasa and Bhişaj Ātharvaṇa, as well as by the connection of Atharvaṇaḥ and Atharvanani with healing (bhesaja) in the Pancavimsa Brāhmana.8 Moreover, the term bhesajā ('remedies') designates in the Atharvaveda9 that Veda itself, while in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa 10 yātu ('sorcery') conveys the same meaning. evidence, however, being by no means convincing, it remains probable that there existed no clear differentiation between the two sages as responsible for the Atharvaveda as a whole.

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<sup>1</sup> Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 12, 8, 2;
Taittirīya Āraņyaka, ii. 9; 10; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xi. 5, 6, 7; Brhadāraņyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 4, 10; iv. 1, 2; 5, 11; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iii. 4, 1. 2; Taittirīya Upaniṣad, ii. 3, 1.
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² x. 7, 20.

Sānkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xvi. 2, 9, etc.

⁴ Journal of the American Oriental 2, 177.

Society, 11, 387 et seq.; Hymns of the Atharvaveda, xviii. ct seq.

⁵ Av. xi. 6, 14.

⁶ Satapatha Brāhmaņa, x. 5, 2, 20.

⁷ Kausika Sūtra, 3, 19.

⁸ xii. 9, 10; xvi. 10, 10.

⁹ x. 6, 14.

¹⁰ x. 5, 2, 20.

Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie,

A-dṛṣṭa.—'The unseen' is a term used in the Rigveda¹ and the Atharvaveda² to designate a species of vermin. The sun is also described as 'the slayer of the unseen' (adṛṣṭa-han),³ and as a counterpart a 'seen' (dṛṣṭa) is mentioned.⁴ In one passage⁵ the epithets 'seen' and 'unseen' are applied to the worm (Kṛmi), their use being no doubt due to the widespread theory of diseases being due to worms, whether discernable by examination or not.⁶

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<sup>1</sup> Rv. i. 191, 4=Av. vi. 52, 2.

<sup>2</sup> vi. 52, 3.

<sup>3</sup> Rv. i. 191, 9=Av. vi. 52, 1;

Av. v. 23, 6.

<sup>4</sup> Av. ii. 31, 2; viii. 8, 15.
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⁵ Av. v. 23, 6. 7. ⁶ Kuhn, Zeitschrift für vergleichende Sprachforschung, 13, 135 et seq.; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 313-315; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 98.

Adma-sad.—This expression (lit. 'sitting at the meal'), found several times in the Rigveda, is usually rendered 'guest at the feast,' but Geldner² adduces reasons to show that it means 'a fly,' so called because of its settling on food.

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<sup>1</sup> i. 124, 4; vi. 30, 3; vii. 83, 7; | <sup>2</sup> Vedische Studien, 2, 179, 180; but viii. 44, 29; adma-sadvan, vi. 4, 4.
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Adri.—Zimmer¹ deduces from the use of this word ('rock,' 'stone') in a passage of the Rigveda,² that sling-stones were used in Vedic fighting. But the passage is mythical, referring to Indra's aid, and cannot be used with any certainty as evidence for human war. More probably it merely denotes Indra's bolt. See also Aśani.

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<sup>1</sup> Altindisches Leben, 301. Cf. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. <sup>2</sup> i. 51, 3.
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Adhi-devana.—The place where the dice were thrown is thus designated in the Atharvaveda¹ and the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa,² according to Lüders.³ Roth,⁴ followed by Whitney, takes it to mean 'gambling-board.' See Akṣa.

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<sup>1</sup> v. 31, 6; vi. 70, 1.

<sup>2</sup> v. 4, 4, 20. 22. 23.

<sup>3</sup> Das Würfelspiel im alten Indien, 11-13.

<sup>4</sup> St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
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Adhi-rāja.—The word occurs fairly often throughout the early literature, denoting 'overlord' among kings or princes.

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    1 Rv. x. 128, 9; Av. vi. 98, 1; ix. 10, 24; Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 4, 14, 2; iii. 1, 2, 9 (adhirājan); Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 4, 2, 2; Nirukta, viii. 2.
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In no passage is it clear that a real over-king is meant, as the word $r\bar{a}jan$ may mean king or merely prince, a person of royal blood. On the whole it seems most probable that the word connotes no more than 'king' as opposed to 'prince.'

Adhi-ṣavaṇa.—The two Adhiṣavaṇas¹ are usually understood, as by Roth² and Zimmer,³ to designate the two boards between which the Soma was pressed. Hillebrandt,⁴ however, shows from the ritual that the boards were not placed one over the other, but were placed one behind the other, the two serving as a foundation upon which the Soma was pressed by a stone. This theory seems to account best for the etymological sense of the name 'over-press,' as well as for the use of the word as an adjective ('used for pressing upon'). But according to the procedure as witnessed by Haug⁵ in the Deccan, the shoots of the plant are first placed on the skin, one of the boards being then laid over them and pounded with a stone. The shoots are then taken out and placed upon the board, the second board being then laid over them.

1 Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xviii. 21; Av. v. 20, 10; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, iii. 9, 4, 1; 5, 3, 22 (adhiṣavaṇe phalake); Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 32 (adhiṣavaṇaṃ carma, 'the skin upon which the pressing takes place'; adhiṣavaṇe phalake, 'the boards on

which the pressing takes place,' etc.).

- ² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
- 3 Altindisches Leben, 277.
- 4 Vedische Mythologie, 1, 148 et seq.
- ⁵ See Haug, Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, 2, p. 488, n. 10.

Adhi-vāsa.—This word¹ denotes the 'upper garment' of the Vedic Indian. Its exact nature is not described, but as the king in the ritual set forth in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa² puts on first an undergarment, then a garment, and finally an upper garment it presumably denotes some sort of cloak or mantle.

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1 Rv. i. 140, 9; 162, 16; x. 5, 4; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 3, 5, 22 (pratimuñc, 'put on'); 4, 4, 3 (ā-str, 'spread out'), etc.
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Adhyāṇḍā.—This is a plant mentioned with many others in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (xiii. 8, 1, 16).

Adhri-gu.—This is the name of a man twice referred to in the Rigveda¹ as a protégé of the Aśvins and of Indra respectively.

1 i. 112, 20; viii. 12, 2. Cf. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 90.

Adhvaryu.—In one passage of the Rigveda¹ Hillebrandt² thinks that the five Adhvaryus who are mentioned do not designate actual priests, but refer to the five planets which move about in the heavens like the Adhvaryu priests on the sacrificial ground. See also Graha.

1 vii. 7. 7.

² Vedische Mythologie, 3, 423.

An-agni-dagdha, 'not burnt with fire.' See Agni-dagdha, 'burnt with fire.'

Anad-vāh (lit. 'cart-drawer').—This is the common¹ name of oxen as employed for drawing carts (Anas). Such oxen were normally castrated,² though not always. Female draft cattle were also used (anaduhī), but rarely.³ See also Gō.

¹ Rv. x. 59, 10; 85, 10; iii. 53, 18; Av. iii. 11, 5; iv. 11, 1, etc.; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 14; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1, 4, 17, etc.

² Cf. Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 1, 5 (anadvān sāndaļi). ³ Av. iv. 11; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 3, 4, 11. 13.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 13, 151, n.; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 226.

Anas.—This is the term¹ used to designate the draft wagon, as opposed to the chariot (ratha) for war or sport, with which it is sometimes expressly contrasted,² though Indra is once said to be 'seated in a wagon' (anar-viś)³ instead of on a chariot. Though Usas, Goddess of Dawn, sometimes rides on a chariot (ratha), the wagon is her characteristic vehicle.⁴ Of its construction we know little. The bridal wagon on which Sūryā, the daughter of the Sun, was borne in the marriage hymn in the Rigveda had a covering (Chadis).⁵ The axle-box (Kha) is also

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1 Rv. iv. 30, 10; x. 85, 10; 86, 18, etc.; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, i. 1, 2, 5, etc.; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, vii. 15, 1; Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad, iii. 8, etc.
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² Rv. iii. 33, 9.

3 Rv. i. 121, 7.

4 Rv. ii. 15, 6; iv. 30, 11; viii. 91, 7; x. 73, 6; 138, 5.

⁵ Rv. x. 85, 10.

mentioned.6 In the Atharvaveda7 Vipatha appears to denote a rough vehicle used for bad tracks. The wagon was usually drawn by oxen (Anadvāh), as in wedding processions.8 The wagon of Dawn is described as drawn by ruddy cows or bulls.9

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8 Rv. viii. 91, 7; Jaiminīya Upanişad
Brāhmana, i. 3.
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9 Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, 47. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 246; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 2, 4.

Anās. See Dasyu.

Anitabhā in the Rigveda¹ is taken by Max Müller² to denote some river.

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2 Sacred Books of the East, 32, 323; but cf. Rasa.
1 v. 53. 9.
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Anu, Anava.—Grassmann and Roth¹ see in these words designations of people foreign to the Aryans. But it is clear² that they denote a special people, the Anus, who are mentioned with the Yadus, Turvasas, Druhyus, and Pūrus,3 with the Druhyus,4 and with the Turvasas, Yadus, and Druhyus.5 It is also a fair conclusion from their mention in a passage of the Rigveda⁶ that they dwelt on the Parusnī. The inference that the Bhrgus were connected with this tribe is much more doubtful.7 for it rests solely on the fact that in one place8 the Bhrgus and Druhyus are mentioned together, and not Anus and Druhyus. Ānava is used as an epithet of Agni,9 but also in the sense of 'Anu prince,' 10 in one case in conjunction with Turvaśa. 11

Anu-kṣattṛ.-This word occurs in the list of victims at the Puruṣamedha,1 and means, according to Mahīdhara,2 'an attendant on the door-keeper,' and, according to Sayana, 'an attendant on the charioteer' (sārathi). See also Kṣattṛ.

⁷ XV. 2, I.

⁸ Rv. x. 85, 11.

¹ St. Petersburg Dictionary.

² Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 125.

³ Rv. i. 108, 8.

⁴ Rv. vii. 18, 14.

⁵ viii. 10, 5.

⁶ Rv. viii. 74, 15, compared with

⁷ Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 221, n.1.

⁸ Rv. vii. 18, 4.

⁹ Rv. viii. 74, 4. Cf. Rv. v. 31, 4, where the Anus prepare the chariot of the Asvins.

¹⁰ Rv. vii. 18, 13.

¹¹ viii. 4, 1. Apparently as prince also in vi. 62, 9. Cf. Kurunga.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 205; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 3, 153; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 154.

¹ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 11; 73;
² On Vājasaneyi Samhitā, loc. cit. aittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 9, 1.
³ On Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, loc. cit. Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 9, 1.

³ On Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, loc. cit.

Anu-cara.—This is a general expression1 for an 'attendant' (the feminine being Anucarī),2 but it is not often used.

tirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 7, 1.

² Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 5, 4,

¹ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 13; Tait- | 27 (apparently slave girls are meant, 400 being enumerated).

Anu-mati. See Māsa.

Anu-rādhā. See Naksatra.

Anu-vaktr Satya Sātya-kīrta is mentioned as a teacher in the Jaiminīya Brāhmana Upanisad (i. 5, 4).

Anuvyā-khyāna is a species of writing referred to in the Brhadāranyaka Upanisad.1 Śankara interprets it as 'explanation of the Mantras.' As the term, in the plural, follows Sūtras, this interpretation is reasonable. Sieg,2 however, equates the word with Anvākhyāna, 'supplementary narrative.'

1 ii, 4, 10; iv. 1, 2; 5, 11.

2 Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 34.

Anu-śāsana in the plural denotes in the Satapatha Brāhmaņa (xi. 5, 6, 8) some form of literature; according to Sāyaṇa, the Vedāngas.

Anu sikha is the name of the Potr at the snake festival in the Pañcavimsa Brāhmana.1

1 xxv. 15. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 35.

Ante-vasin, 'dwelling near,' is the epithet of the Brahmacarin who lives in the house of his teacher. The expression does not occur before the late Brāhmana period.1 Secrecy is often enjoined on others than Antevāsins.2

1 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 1, 5, 17; | 10, 1; Taittirīya Upaniṣad, i. 3, 3; Brhadaranyaka Upanisad, vi. 3, 7; 11, 1. Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iii. 11, 5; iv.

2 Aitareya Āranyaka, iii. 2, 6; Sānkhāyana Āranyaka, viii. 11.

Andhra is the name of a people, and is mentioned with the Pundras, Śabaras, Pulindas, and Mūtibas, as being the outcasts resulting from the refusal of the fifty eldest sons of Viśvāmitra to accept his adoption of Sunahsepa.1 It may fairly be deduced

āyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 26, where instead of udāntyah ('beyond the Pulindas, and has Mūcīpas. borders') the reading is udancah (' nor-

1 Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vii. 18; Śānkh- | thern'), but the former is obviously

from this statement that these people were recognized as non-Aryan, as the Andhras certainly seem to have been.2

schen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 56, 657 et seq., who places them originally in Eastern India between the Krsna | 138.

² Vincent Smith, Zeitschrift der Deut- | and Godavari rivers; cf. Rapson, Catalogue of Indian Coins, xv., xvi.; Bhandarkar, Bombay Gazetteer, I. ii.

Anyatah-plaksā ('with wave-leafed fig-trees on one side only') is the name of a lake in Kuruksetra according to the Satapatha Brāhmana,1 where it occurs in the story of Purūravas and Urvasī. Pischel² places it somewhere in Sirmor.

1 xi. 5, I. 4.

2 Vedische Studien, 2, 217.

Anya-vāpa ('sowing for others').—The cuckoo is so called¹ from its habit of depositing its eggs in the nests of other birds.

¹ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 37; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 18.

Anva-khyana.-From the literal translation ('after-story') the meaning of 'supplementary narrative' seems to follow. In two1 of its three occurrences in the Satapatha Brāhmana this sense is hardly felt, the expression being used to indicate a subsequent portion of the book itself. But in the third2 passage it is distinguished from the Itihāsa ('story') proper, and there must mean 'supplementary narrative.' Cf. Anuvyākhyāna.

1 vi. 5, 2, 22; 6, 4, 7 (the reference | 2 xi. r, 6, 9, is to vi. 6, 4, 8).

Cf. Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 34.

Apa-cit.—This word occurs several times in the Atharvayeda.¹ It is held by Roth,2 Zimmer,3 and others to denote an insect whose sting produced swellings, etc. (glau). But Bloomfield4 shows that the disease, scrofulous swellings, is what is really meant, as is shown by the rendering (ganda-mālā, 'inflammation of the glands of the neck') of Kesava and Savana, and by the parallelism of the later disease, apacī, the derivation being from apa and ci, 'to pick off.'

, 342, 500.

4 American Journal of Philology, II.

¹ vi. 25, 1; 83, 1; vii. 75, 1; 77, 1.

² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. 3 Altindisches Leben, 97. So also Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda,

³²⁰ et seq. ; Hymns of the Atharvaveda. 503, 504. Cf. Jolly, Medicin, 89; Whitney, Translation of the Athar. vaveda, 343.

Apa-śraya. See Upaśraya.

Apa-skambha.—The word occurs only in one passage of the Atharvaveda, where the tip of it is mentioned as poisoned. Roth¹ suggests that the fastening of the arrow-point to the shaft is meant. Whitney2 inclines to this version, but suggests corruption of text. Zimmer3 follows Roth. Ludwig4 renders the word by 'barb.' Bloomfield thinks it means 'tearing (arrow),' a sense deduced from the etymology.

1 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. The passage is Av. iv. 6, 4.

² Translation of the Atharvaveda, 153.

3 Altindisches Leben, 300.

4 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 512.

5 Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 375.

Apacyas.—The kings of the 'Westerners' are referred to in the Aitareya Brāhmana (viii. 14) in connection with those of the Nīcyas.

Apāna.—The word appears repeatedly in the Atharvaveda,1 and later as one of the vital breaths (Prana), usually with Prāṇa, and often with one or more of the other three. Its original sense² appears to have been 'inspiration.' Its connection with the lower part of the body (nābhi, 'navel'), which is found already in the Aitareya Upanisad,3 is not unnatural.

saneyi Samhitā, xiii. 19; 24, etc.

2 See Caland, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, lv. 261; 56, 556-558, correcting Ewing,

1 Av. ii. 28, 3; v. 30, 12, etc.; Vāja- | Journal of the American Oriental Society, 22, 249 et seq.

3 Aitareya Upanisad, i. 4, etc. Cf. Deussen, Philosophy of the Upanishads, 263 et seq.

Apā-mārga.—A plant (Achyranthes aspera) used frequently1 in witchcraft practices, and for medical purposes, especially against Kșetriya. It is described in the Atharvaveda² as 'revertive' (bunah-sara), either, as Roth3 and Zimmer4 think, because of its having reverted leaves (a view also accepted by Whitney⁵),

1 Atharvaveda, iv. 17, 6; 18, 7; 19, 4; vii. 65, 2; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxxv. 11; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 7. 1, 8; Satapatha Brāhmana, v. 2, 4, 14; xiii. 8, 4, 4.

3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

4 Altindisches Leben, 67.

⁵ Translation of the Atharvaveda, 180.

or because, as Bloomfield⁶ holds, it wards off a spell by causing it to recoil on its user.

⁶ Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 394. Cf. | Oriental Society, 15, 160, 161; Weber, Bloomfield, Journal of the American | Indische Studien, 18, 94.

Apā-lamba.—By this word¹ is denoted a brake or drag, let down (from *lamb*, 'hang down') to check the speed of a wagon.

¹ Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 3, 4, 13. | Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Cf. Caland and Henry, L'Agnistoma, 50; | Eggeling, Sucred Books of the East, 26, 79.

Apāṣṭha.—This word occurs twice in the Atharvaveda,¹ denoting the barb of an arrow.

1 iv. 6, 5; v. 18, 7 (śatāpāṣṭha, 'hun-dred-barbed'). Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Atharvaveda, 375.

Api-śarvara. See Ahan.

Apī.—Ludwig¹ finds an Apī whose sons are described as not performing sacrifice (a-yajña-sāc) and as breakers of the law of Mitra-Varuna in the Rigveda.² Roth³ and Grassmann take the expression used (apyah putrāh) as referring to the sons of the waters.

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<sup>1</sup> Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 158, | <sup>2</sup> vi. 67, 9. 
159. <sup>3</sup> St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., apya.
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Apūpa is the general word from the Rigveda¹ onwards for a cake, which might be mixed with ghee (ghṛtavant),² or be made of rice (vrīhi),³ or of barley (yava).⁴ In the Chāndogya Upaniṣad⁵ there is a difference of interpretation. Max Müller renders it as 'hive,' Böhtlingk as 'honeycomb,' Little⁶ as 'cake.'

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1 iii. 52, 7.

2 Rv. x. 45, 9.

3 Satapatha Brāhmana, ii. 2, 3, 12, 13.

4 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 2, 5, 19.

5 iii. 1, 1.

6 Grammatical Index, s.v.
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Apnavāna appears only twice in the Rigveda¹ as an ancient sage, coupled with the Bhṛgus, to whose family Ludwig² conjectures him to have belonged.

¹ iv. 7, 1; viii. 91, 4. 2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 128.

A-prati-ratha ('he who has no match in fight') is the name of an obviously invented Rṣi, to whom is ascribed by the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa¹ and Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa² the composition of a Rigveda hymn³ celebrating Indra as the invincible warrior.

Apvā.—A disease affecting the stomach,¹ possibly dysentery, as suggested by Zimmer,² on the ground that the disease is invoked to confound the enemy.³ Weber⁴ considers that it is diarrhœa induced by fear, as often in the Epic.⁵ This view is supported by Bloomfield,⁰ and was apparently that of Yāska.ⁿ

Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 86, 87.

Apsas.—This word usually refers to the body, meaning 'front part.' In one passage of the Rigveda, however, the adjective 'with a long front part' (dirghāpsas) is applied to the chariot (Ratha).

1 See Pischel, Vedische Studien, I, 2 i. 122, 15. Cf. Roth, St. Peters-308-313; 2, 245, 246. burg Dictionary, s.v.

Abhi-krośaka designates one of the victims in the Puruṣa-medha, meaning, perhaps, 'herald.' The commentator Mahī-dhara¹ renders it as 'reviler' (nindaka).

¹ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 20. Cf. Anukrośaka, Taittiriya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 15, 1.

Abhi-jit. See Nakṣatra.

Abhi-pitva. See Ahan.

Abhi-pratārin Kākṣa-seni is mentioned in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa,¹ the Chāndogya Upaniṣad,² and the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa,³ as engaged in discussions on philosophy. The Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa⁴ further reports that his sons divided the property amongst themselves while he was yet alive. He was a Kuru and a prince.

¹ Av. ix. 8, 9.

² Altindisches Leben, 389.

³ Rv. x. 103, 12=Av. iii. 2, 5= Sāmaveda, ii. 1211=Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvii. 44.

⁴ Indische Studien, 9, 482; 17, 184.

⁵ Indische Studien, 17, 184.

⁶ Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 327.

⁷ Nirukta, ix. 33.

¹ i. 59, 1; iii. 1, 21; 2, 2. 13.

² iv. 3, 5.

³ x. 5, 7; xiv. 1, 12, 15.

⁴ iii. 156 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 26, 61).

Abhi-praśnin.—This term occurs after Praśnin, and followed by Praśnavivāka in the list of victims for the Puruṣamedha given in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa¹ and the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā.² The commentators, Sāyaṇa and Mahīdhara, see in it merely a reference to an inquisitive man. But there can be little doubt that the term must have had a legal reference of some sort—perhaps indicating the defendant as opposed to plaintiff and judge.

1 iii. 4, 6, 1.

XXX. IO.

Abhi-śrī ('admixture').—This word¹ designates the'milk used to mingle with the Soma juice before it was offered.

1 Rv. ix. 79, 5; 86. 27. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 227; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, i. 211.

Abhi-ṣavaṇī. — Zimmer¹ renders the expression in the Atharvaveda² as a pressing instrument, but it appears to be merely an adjective, (waters) 'used in pressing.'³

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<sup>1</sup> Altindisches Leben, 277.

<sup>2</sup> ix. 6, 16.
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Abhi-ṣeka ('besprinkling').—The Vedic king was consecrated after his election with an elaborate ritual, which is fully described in the Taittirīya,¹ Pañcaviṃśa,² Śatapatha,³ and Aitareya Brāhmaṇas,⁴ and for which the Mantras are given in the Saṃhitās.⁵ The consecration took place by sprinkling with water (abhiṣecanīyā āpah).⁰ Only kings could be consecrated, the people not being worthy of it (anabhiṣecanīyāh).ⁿ The sprinkler (abhiṣektṛ) is mentioned in the list of victims at the Puruṣamedha.³ The Abhiṣeka is an essential part of the Rājasūya, or sacrifice of royal inauguration, being the second of its component members.

³ Cf. Whitney's Translation of Av. ix. 6, 16.

¹ i. 7, 5.

² xviii. 8 et seq.

³ v. 3, 3 et seq.

⁴ viii. 5 et seq.

⁸ Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 8, 11; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xv. 6; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 6; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, x. 1-4.

⁶ Satapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 3, 5, 10-15,

 ⁷ Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xiii. 4, 2, 17.
 ⁸ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 12;
 Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 8, 1.

⁹ Cf. Hillebrandt, Rituallitteratur, 143-147; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 41, xxvi; Weber, Über den Rājasūya.

Abhīśu is a common Vedic word¹ denoting the 'reins' or 'bridle' of the chariot horses. The use of the plural is due to the fact that two or four horses, possibly five (daśābhīśu 'tenbridled'),² were yoked to the car.

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<sup>1</sup> Rv. i. 38, 12; v. 44, 4; vi. 75, 6; viii. 33, 11; Av. vi. 137, 2; viii. 8, 22; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxxiv. 6; Sata-

Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxxiv. 6; Sata-

Patha Brāhmaṇa, v. 4, 3, 14 (where it = raśmayaḥ, 'reins'), etc.

Rv. i. 38, 12; v. 44, 4; vi. 75, 6; patha Brāhmaṇa, v. 4, 3, 14 (where it = raśmayaḥ, 'reins'), etc.
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Abhy-agni Aitaśāyana.—This man was, according to the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,¹ unfortunate enough to quarrel with his father, Aitaśa. The result was that he and his progeny were called the worst of the Aurvas. In the version of the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa,² the Aitaśāyana Ājāneyas take the place of the Abhyagnis and the Bhṛgus of the Aurvas, the latter being probably a branch of the former family.

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1 vi. 33. 2 xxx. 5. Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 173.
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Abhyā-vartin Cāyamāna appears in a Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts') in the Rigveda,¹ and as conqueror of the Vṛcīvants under the leader Varaśikha. It is probable, though not absolutely certain, that he is identical with the Sṛñjaya Daivavāta, mentioned in the same hymn² as having the Turvaśas and Vṛcīvants defeated for him by Indra. In this case he would be prince (samrāj) of the Sṛñjayas. Daivavāta is mentioned elsewhere³ as a worshipper of Agni.

Abhyāvartin is also referred to as a Pārthava. Ludwig and Hillebrandt maintained that he is thus a Parthian, the latter using the evidence of the two places mentioned in the description of Daivavāta's victories, Hariyūpīyā and Yavyāvatī, as proofs for the western position of Abhyāvartin's people in Arachosia, in Iran. But Zimmer is probably right in holding that the name Pārthava merely means a descendant of Pṛthu, and that its similarity to the Iranian Parthians is only on a par with the numerous other points of identity between the Indian and Iranian cultures.

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1 vi. 27, 8. 5.
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² vi. 27, 7.

³ iv. 15, 4.
4 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 198

⁵ Vedische Mythologie, 1, 105; 3, 268,

n. 1. Cf. Grierson, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1908, 604 et seq.

⁶ Rv. vi. 27, 5. 6.

⁷ Altindisches Leben, 133 et seq., 433; Bergaigne, Religion Védique, 2, 362.

A-bhrātarah ('brotherless').—The lot of girls without brothers is referred to in the Rigveda 1 as unsatisfactory—apparently they became prostitutes. The Nirukta 2 expressly forbids marriage with a brotherless maiden, probably because of the risk of her being made a putrikā ('adoptive daughter') by her father—that is, any son of hers being counted as belonging to her father's, instead of to her husband's, family. See Ayogū.

1 i. 124, 7; iv. 5, 5. Cf. Av. 1 i, 17, I. 2 iii. 5 (abhrātrī).

Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 259; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 328.

Abhri ('spade') is a Vedic word 1 of frequent occurrence. Various possible materials and forms are enumerated in the Satapatha Brāhmana.² It may be made of bamboo or of the wood of Vikankata or Udumbara. It may be a span or a cubit in size. It is hollow, and either one or both edges are sharp. From this it would appear that the handle was made of some wood, but the head of some metal.

1 Av. iv. 7, 5. 6 (abhri-khāte is 'dug | out with a spade,' not 'prepared ground' with Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.); x. 4, 14; hiranyayibhir abhribhih, 'with golden spades');

Vājasaneyi Samhitā, v. 22; xi. 10; xxxvii. 1; Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa, xvi. 6; Satapatha Brāhmana, ii. 3, 2, 15,

2 vi. 3, 1, 30 et seq.

Amatra was a vessel into which the Soma, after being pressed, was poured,1 and out of which the libation to the god was made.2

1 Rv. ii. 14, 1; v. 51, 4; vi. 42, 2, etc. 2 Rv. x. 29, 7.

Ct. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 278; Oldenberg, Rgveda Noten, 1, 61.

Amalā.—This plant 1 is probably the Emblica officinalis, or Myrobalan tree; also called Āmalaka, or Āmalakā.2

¹ Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, | ṣad, vii. 3, 1, is vāmalake, which may i. 38, 6.

give ă° or ā°.

² The reading in Chandogya Upani-

Amā-jur is an epithet1 denoting maidens 'who grow old at home' without finding husbands, or, as they are elsewhere called, 'who sit with their father' (pitr-sad). A well-known example of such was Ghoṣā.2

² Rv. i. 117, 7. Cf. Zimmer, Altin-1 Rv. ii. 17, 7; viii. 21, 15; disches Leben, 305. × 37, 3.

Amā-vāsya Śāndilyāyana is mentioned in the Vamsa Brāhmana¹ as the teacher of Amśu Dhānamjayya.

1 Indische Studien, iv. 373.

Amitra-tapana Śusmina Śaibya is the name of him who killed Atyarāti Jānamtapi, according to the Aitareya Brāhmana (viii. 23).

A-mūlā ('without root') is the name in the Atharvaveda 1 of a plant (Methonica superba), which was used for poisoning arrows. Bloomfield.2 however, renders it as 'movable property.'

1 v. 31 4. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, Atharvaveda, 279, accepts 'rootless 18, 286; Whitney, Translation of the (plant).' 2 Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 457.

Ambarīsa is mentioned as a Vārṣāgira in the Rigveda 1 along with Rirāśva, Sahadeva, Surādhas, and Bhayamāna.

i. 100, 17. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 140.

Ambastha. See Ambasthya.

Aya. See Akşa.

Ayas.—The exact metal denoted by this word when used by itself, as always in the Rigveda, is uncertain. As favouring the sense of 'bronze' rather than that of 'iron' may perhaps be cited with Zimmer 2 the fact that Agni is called ayo-damstra, 'with teeth of Ayas,'3 with reference to the colour of his flames, and that the car-seat of Mitra and Varuna is called ayah-sthuna,4 'with pillars of Ayas' at the setting of the sun.5 Moreover, in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā,6 Ayas is enumerated in a list of six metals: gold (hiranya), Ayas, Śyāma, Loha, lead (sīsa), tin (trapu). Here śyāma ('swarthy') and loha ('red') must mean 'iron' and 'copper' respectively; ayas would therefore seem to mean 'bronze.' In many passages in the Atharvaveda 7 and

vi 3, 5.

² Altindisches Leben, 52.

³ Rv. i. 88, 5; x. 87, 2. 4 Rv. v. 62, 8 (cf. 7).

⁵ But this is not convincing, as in | iv. 2, 9.

¹ Rv. i. 57, 3; 163, 9; iv. 2, 17; | the same verse it is said to be 'of golden appearance at the flush of dawn.'

⁶ xviii, 13.

⁷ xi. 3, 1. 7; Maitrayani Samhita,

other books, the Ayas is divided into two species—the \$yama ('iron') and the lohita ('copper' or 'bronze'). In the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa⁸ a distinction is drawn between Ayas and lohāyasa, which may either be a distinction between iron and copper as understood by Eggeling, or between copper and bronze as held by Schrader. In one passage of the Atharvaveda, the sense of iron seems certain. Possibly, too, the arrow of the Rigveda, which had a tip of Ayas (yasyā ayo mukham), was pointed with iron. Copper, however, is conceivable, and bronze quite likely.

Iron is called *syāma ayas* or *syāma* alone. See also Kārsnāyasa. Copper is Lohāyasa or Lohitāyasa.

The smelting (dhmā 'to blow') of the metal is frequently referred to. The Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa 14 states that if 'well smelted' (bahu-dhmātam) it is like gold, referring evidently to bronze. A heater of Ayas is mentioned in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā, 15 and bowls of Ayas are also spoken of. 16

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8 v. 4, I, 2.
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Aya-sthūṇa.—He was Gṛhapati ('householder,' the sacrificer at sacrificial sessions) of those whose Adhvaryu was Śaulvā-yana, and taught the latter the proper mode of using certain spoons.¹

Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 4, 2, 17 et seq.

Ayāsya Āṅgirasa.—This sage appears to be mentioned in two passages of the Rigveda,¹ and the Anukramaṇī ascribes to him several hymns of the Rigveda (ix. 44-46; x. 67; 68). In the Brāhmaṇa tradition he was Udgātṛ at the Rājasūya or Royal Inauguration Sacrifice, at which Śunaḥśepa was to have been slain, and his Udgītha (Sāmaveda chant) is referred to elsewhere.³ He is also referred to several times as a ritual

⁹ Sacred Books of the East, 41, 90.

¹⁰ Prehistoric Antiquities, 189.

¹¹ v. 28, I.

¹² vi. 75, 15.

¹³ Av. ix. 5, 4.

^{14;} xii. 7, 1, 7; 2, 10, etc.

15 xxx. 14; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 10, 1.

¹⁶ Av. viii. 10, 22; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iv. 2, 13.

¹ x. 67, 1; 108, 8. Perhaps x. 92, 15 also refers to him, but not i. 62, 7; x. 138, 4.

² Aitareya Brāhmana, vii. 16.

³ Jaiminīya Upanişad Brāhmaņa, ii. 7, 2. 6; 8, 3. *Cf.* Chāndogya Upanişad, i. 2, 12.

authority.⁴ In the Vamsas, or Genealogies of the Brhadāran-yaka Upaniṣad,⁵ he is named as the pupil of Ābhūti Tvāṣṭra.

4 Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xiv. 3, 22; xvi. 12, 4; xi. 8, 10; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, i. 3, 8. 19. 24; Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa, xxx. 6.

5 ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3 (in both recensions). | Studien, 3, 204.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 136; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 159; Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 255, n.; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 3, 204.

Ayogū is a word of quite doubtful meaning, found in the list of victims in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā.¹ It may, like the late āyogava, denote a member of a mixed caste (theoretically adescendant of a Śūdra by a Vaiśya wife).² Weber³ rendered it as 'unchaste woman.⁴ Zimmer thinks it denotes a brotherless maiden who is exposed to the dangers of prostitution (cf. āyogava).

1 xxx. 5; Taithrīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4,

² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

³ Indische Streifen, 1, 76, n.b. In the Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 18, 277, he thought it re-

ferred to dicing (ayas). Risley, Peoples of India, 250, regards the Ayogavas as a functional caste of carpenters (cf. Manu, x. 48).

4 Altindisches Leben, 328.

Ara. See Ratha.

Araţu.—A plant 1 (Colosanthes Indica) from the wood of which the axle of a chariot was sometimes made.2

¹ Av. xx. 131, 17. ² Rv. viii. 46, 27. Cf. Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 62, 247.

Aranya.—This term denotes the uncultivated land—not necessarily forest land—beyond the village. It is contrasted with home $(am\bar{a})^1$ and with the plough land $(krsi)^2$, being spoken of as apart (tiras) from men.³ It is also contrasted with the Grāma,⁴ and it is the place where thieves live.⁵ The character of the forest is described in a hymn of the Rigveda to the forest spirit (Aranyānī). The dead are carried there for burial,⁷ and hermits live there.⁸ Forest fires were common.⁹

1 Rv. vi. 24, 10.

Av. ii. 4, 5.
 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xiii. 6, 2, 20.

4 Av. xii. 1, 56; Rv. i. 163, 11; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, iii. 45; xx. 17.

5 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 2, 3, 5; xiii. 2, 4, 4. 6 x. 146.

⁷ Brhadāraņyaka Upaniṣad, v. 11.

Chāndogya Upaniṣad, viii. 5, 3.
 Rv. i. 65, 4; 94, 10. 11; ii; 14, 2;

x. 92, 1; 142, 4; Av. vii. 50, etc. Cf. Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 48,

Aratni.—This word, which primarily means 'elbow,' occurs frequently from the Rigveda1 onwards as denoting a measure of length ('ell' or 'cubit'), the distance from the elbow to the tip of the hand. The exact length nowhere appears from the early texts.

¹ Rv. viii. 80, 8; Av. xix. 57, 6; | Brāhmaṇa, vi. 3, 1, 33, etc. For Aitareya Brāhmana, viii. 5; Satapatha | Rv. viii. 80, 8, see also Aji.

A-rājānah, 'not princes,' is a term used to describe persons in two passages of the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa,1 and in the Aitareya Brāhmana.2 Weber3 also finds them mentioned in the Atharvaveda,4 and thinks that they-Sūtas ('charioteers') and Grāmanīs ('troop-leaders') there referred to—were called thus because, while not themselves princes, they assisted in the consecration of princes.

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1 iii. 4, 1, 7. 8; xiii. 4, 2, 17.
2 viii. 23.
3 Indische Studien, 17, 199.
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to a-rajanah (see Whitney's note on the passage). Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 333; Weber, Über den iii. 5, 7, where he emends rājānah | Rājasūya, 22 et seq.

Arāṭakī is a plant mentioned once in the Atharvaveda, and apparently identical with the Ajasringi. Cf. also Aratu.

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Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda,
Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 68; 408.
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Arāda Dātreya Śaunaka.—He is mentioned in the Vamsa Brāhmana1 as the pupil of Drti Aindrota Śaunaka.

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1 Indische Studien, 4, 384.
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Aritra denotes the 'oar' by which boats were propelled. The Rigveda¹ and the Vājasaneyi Samhitā² speak of a vessel with a hundred oars, and a boat (nau) is said to be 'propelled by oars' (aritra-parana).3 In two passages of the Rigveda4 the term, according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary, denotes a part of a chariot. The rower of a boat is called arity.5 See Nau.

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1 i. 116, 5.
  2 xxi. 7.
  3 Rv. x. 101, 2. Cf. Satapatha Brāh-
mana, iv. 2, 5, 10.
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4 i. 46, 8 ; daśāritra, ii. 18, 1.
5 Rv. ii. 42, 1; ix. 95, 2.
Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben.
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Arim-dama Sana-śruta is mentioned as a Mahārāja in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 34.

Arim-ejaya is mentioned as one who served as Adhvaryu at the snake feast celebrated in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.¹

1 xxv. 15. See Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 35.

Aruņa Āṭa was Achāvāka at the snake feast in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xxv. 15).

Aruṇa Aupaveśi Gautama is the full style¹ of a teacher, who is repeatedly referred to in the later Saṃhitās² and Brāhmaṇas,³ and whose son was the famous Uddālaka Āruṇi. He was a pupil of Upaveśa,⁴ and a contemporary of the prince Aśvapati, by whom he was instructed. Cf. Āruṇa.

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 1, 9, 2; 4, 5, 1; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, i. 4, 10; iii. 6, 4. 6; 7, 4; 8, 6; 10, 5; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xxvi. 10.

² Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 1, 5, 11; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, ii. 2, 2, 20; xi. 4, 1, 4; 5, 3, 2. ³ Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 5, 3 (in both recensions).

⁴ Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, x. 6, 1, 2. Cf. Geldner, Vedische Studien, 3, 146, n. ⁴.

der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesell-

r. Arundhatī is the name of a plant celebrated in several passages of the Atharvaveda¹ as possessing healing properties in case of wounds, as a febrifuge, and as inducing cows to give milk. The plant was a climber which attached itself to trees like the Plakṣa, Aśvattha, Nyagrodha, and Parṇa.² It was of golden colour (hiranya-varṇā), and had a hairy stem (lomaśa-vakṣaṇā).³ It was also called Silācī, and the Lākṣā appears to have been a product of it.⁴

1 iv. 12, 1; v. 5, 5. 9; vi. 59, 1. 2; viii. 7, 6; xix. 38, 1. 2 Av. v. 5, 5. 3 Av. v. 5, 7: Pischel Vedische

schaft, 48, 574.

4 Cf. Whitney's note on Av. iv. 12;
ite Bloomfield, Atharvaveda, 61.

3 Av. v. 5, 7; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1, 174; Bloomfield, Zeitschrift

2. Arundhatī, as the name of a star, is often referred to in the Sūtra literature, but only once in a late Āraṇyaka.¹

¹ Taittirīya Āraņyaka, iii. 9, 2.

Arka, as the name of the tree Colotropis gigantea, is perhaps found in one obscure passage of the Atharvaveda.¹

1 vi. 72, 1, where see Whitney's note. Cf. St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Argala.—The word which is usual later to denote the wooden pin of a door is found in the Śāṇkhāyana Āraṇyaka (ii. 16) in the compound argaleṣīke to denote the pin and bar of the door of a cow-pen. Cf. Iṣīkā.

Argala Kāhoḍi is mentioned in the Kāṭhaka Samhitā (xxv. 7) as a teacher. The name may, however, be Aryala, as suggested in the St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., and as read by v. Schroeder in his edition. The Kapiṣṭhala (xxxix. 5) has Ayala. See below.

Arcant is possibly, as Ludwig¹ thinks, the name of the author of a hymn of the Rigveda²; but the word may be merely the ordinary participle 'praising.'

Arcanānas.—In one passage of the Rigveda¹ the gods Mitra-Varuṇa are besought to protect Arcanānas. He is also invoked with Śyāvāśva and several other ancestors enumerated in the Atharvaveda.² He appears as father of Śyāvāśva in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.³ The later tradition makes him play a part in the legend of his son's wedding, which Sieg⁴ endeavours to show is known to the Rigveda.

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1 v. 64, 7.
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Arcā. See Brāhmaņa.

4 Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 50 et seq. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 127; Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 354.

Arjunī is, in the Rigveda,¹ the name of the Nakṣatra ('lunar mansion'), elsewhere² called Phalgunī. It occurs in the marriage hymn, with Aghā for Maghā, and, like that word, is apparently a deliberate modification.

xviii. 3, 15.
 viii. 5, 9.

¹ x. 85, 13. 2 Av. xiv. 1, 13. Cf. Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1, 11, 2.

Arbuda is mentioned as Grāvastut priest at the snake festival described in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.¹ He is obviously the same mythical figure as Arbuda Kādraveya, a seer spoken of in the Aitareya² and Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇas³ as a maker of Mantras.

¹ xxv. 15. ² vi. 1.

3 xxix, 1. Cf. Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xiii, 4, 3, 9.

Arya.—This word is not common in the older literature, in places where the quantity of the first vowel is fixed as short, except in a mere adjectival sense. Geldner, indeed, contends that no other sense is anywhere needed; but Roth and Zimmer agree in thinking that in several passages of the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā the word has the same sense as Ārya, and this appears probable. Whether it is necessary to ascribe this sense to the word in the compound arya-patnī applied to the waters set free by Indra, is more doubtful. The commentator, Mahīdhara, suggests that the word means a Vaiśya, not an Ārya generally. This view is supported by the explanation in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa of one of the passages of the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā. But though the use of Arya to denote a Vaiśya became common later, it is not clear that it was original.

1 Vedische Studien, 3, 96.

² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

3 Altindisches Leben, 214, 215.

⁴ xiv. 30; xx. 17; xxiii. 21; xxvi. 2. Cf. also Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxxviii. 5; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vii. 4, 19, 3. In Atharvaveda, xix. 32, 8, an analogous form occurs, as contrasted with brāhmaṇa, rājanya, and śūdra; but even there Whitney renders it as 'Āryan.' Cf. xix. 62, 1; Rv. viii. 94, 3; Pischel, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 40, 125.

⁵ Rv. vii. 6, 5; x. 43, 8.

6 On Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiii.

⁷ xiii. 2, 9, 8. Contrast Śānkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xvi. 4, 4 et seq., where Arya appears to be taken in the wider

⁸ xxiii. 30. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 212; Weber, Indische Studien, x. 6; Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 126, 363.

Aryamnah Panthā, 'Aryaman's Way,' an expression which occurs in the Brāhmaṇas,¹ denotes, according to Weber,² 'the milky way,' but, according to Hillebrandt,³ 'the ecliptic.'

1 Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 7, 6, 6; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xxv. 12, 3; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 3, 1, 2. ² Über den Rājasūya, 48, 2.

3 Vedische Mythologie, 3, 79, 80.

Aryala.—Those at whose snake feast the Grhapati was Aryala, and the Hotr was Āruņi are mentioned in the Pañcaviņsa Brāhmaņa (xxiii. 1, 5). See also Argala.

Arvant. See Aśva.

Arśas is the name of a disease mentioned in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā¹ with consumption and other ailments. It appears to designate 'hæmorrhoids,' as in the later medical literature.

1 xii. 98.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 398; Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Alaja designates some kind of bird—one of the victims in the Aśvamedha, or Horse Sacrifice.

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 4, 11, 1; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xxi. 4; Vājasaneyi 5, 20, 1; Maitrāyaṇī Samhitā, iii. 14, 18; Samhitā, xxiv. 34.

Alaji is the name of a disease in the Atharvaveda. The later alajī denotes an eye-disease—a discharge at the junction of the cornea and the sclerotica.

1 ix. 8, 20. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 390; St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Alamma Pārijānata is mentioned in the Pañcavimśa Brāhmana (xiii. 4, 11; 10, 8) as a sage.

Alasālā.—This word occurring only in one passage of the Atharvaveda (vi. 16, 4) is said to denote a grain-creeper.

Alāṇḍu.—This is the reading in the text of the Atharvaveda¹ of the name of a species of worm. Bloomfield² shows reason to adopt the reading Algaṇḍu as the correct form of the word.

1 ii. 31, 2. ² Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 315.

Alābu.—The bottle-gourd (Lagenaria vulgaris). Vessels made of it are referred to in the Atharvaveda.¹

1 viii. 10, 29. 30; xx. 132, 1. 2. Cf. alāpu in Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iv. 2, 13.

Alāyya is a word occurring in an obscure verse of the Rigveda, and appearing to be a proper name. Hillebrandt, however, amends the text so as to remove the name. The St. Petersburg Dictionary suggests that it refers to Indra. Pischel holds that

¹ ix. 67, 20.

2 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 701.

it is the name of a person whose axe was stolen, and for whom the hymn was written as a spell for the recovery of the axe.

Aliklava is a kind of carrion bird mentioned in the Atharvaveda.¹

1 xi. 2, 2; 9, 9. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 88.

Alina is the name of a people mentioned once only in the Rigveda.¹ Roth² thought that the Alinas were allies—possibly a subdivision—of the Tṛtsus. Ludwig³ more probably thinks that they were defeated by Sudās, together with the Pakthas, Bhalānas, Śivas, and Viṣāṇins, with whom they are mentioned, at the Paruṣṇī; and Zimmer⁴ suggests that they lived to the north-east of Kafiristan.

- ¹ vii. 18, 7.
- ² Zur Litteratur und Geschichte des Weda, 95; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 126.
- ³ Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 207.
- 4 Op. cit., 431. The land is mentioned by Hiouen Thsang.

Alīkayu Vācas-patya is twice mentioned as an authority in the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa (xxvi. 5; xxviii. 4).

Alpa-sayu is a kind of insect mentioned in the Atharvaveda.1

1 iv. 36, 9.

Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Athar- the Atharvaveda, 210.

vaveda, 408; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 210.

Avakā is an aquatic plant (Blyxa octandra) frequently referred to in the Atharvaveda as well as in the later Saṃhitās² and Brāhmaṇas.³ The Gandharvas are said to eat it.⁴ Its later name is śaivala, and it is identical with the Śīpāla.

- ¹ viii. 7, 9; 37, 8-10.
- ² Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 6, 1, 1; v. 4, 2, 1; 4, 3; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvii. 4; xxv. 1; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 10, 1.
- ³ Śatapatha Brāhmana, vii. 5, 1, 11; viii. 3, 2, 5; ix. 1, 2, 20. 22; xiii. 8, 3, 13.
- 4 Av. iv. 37, 8.
- b With which it is glossed in Āsvalāyana Grhya Sūtra, ii. 8; iv. 4. Cf. Bloomfield, Proceedings of the American Oriental Society, October, 1890, xli.-xliii.; American Journal of Philology, 11, 349; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 71.

Avata, a word occurring several times in the Rigveda, denotes a well, artificially made (khan 'to dig') in contrast with a spring

1 i. 55, 8; 85, 10. 11; 116, 9. 22; | 62, 6; 72, 10. 12; x. 25, 4; 101, 130, 2; iv. 17, 16; 50, 3; viii. 49, 6; | 5. 7. Cf. Nirukta, v. 26.

(utsa), though the latter expression is also applied to an artificial well. Such wells were covered by the makers,2 and are described as unfailing (a-ksita) and full of water.3 The water was raised by a wheel (cakra) of stone, to which was fastened a strap (varatrā), with a pail (kośa)4 attached to it. When raised it was poured (sinc) into buckets (āhāva) of wood. 5 Sometimes those wells appear to have been used for irrigation purposes, the water being led off into broad channels (sūrmī susirā).8

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<sup>2</sup> Rv. i. 55, 8.
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kū-cakra in Rv. x. 102, 11, is another name for the wheel, but cf. St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

5 Rv. x. 101, 6. 7.

6 Rv. viii. 69, 12. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 156, 157; Geldner,

Avatsāra is mentioned as a seer in the Rigveda, as a priest in the Aitareya Brāhmana,2 and as Prāsravana (or Prāśravana), son of Prasravaņa, in the Kausītaki Brāhmana.3 A hymn of the Rigveda4 is incorrectly ascribed to him in the Anukramanī.

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1 v. 44, 10.
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the Rigveda, 3, 138; Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 188; 2, 315; Sieg. Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 62 et seq

A-vadhyatā. See Brāhmaņa.

Avasa in the adjective an-avasa in the Rigveda 1 may mean 'drag.'

1 vi. 66, 7. Cf. Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 372.

Ava-skava.—A kind of worm, mentioned along with others in the Atharvaveda.1

1 ii. 31, 4. Cf. Whitney, ad loc.; | Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 90; Bloom-Weber, Indische Studien, 13, 201; | field, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 316.

See Vāta. Avāta.

Avi .- 'Sheep' are repeatedly mentioned in the Rigveda, and later, often in conjunction with goats (aja). The wolf (vrka) was their great enemy,1 and they were tended by shepherds.2

³ Rv. x. 101, 6, etc.

⁴ Amsatra-kośam, Rv. x. 101, 7, is best thus rendered. For the stone wheel (asma-cakra) which was above (uccācakra), see Rv. x. 101, 7; viii. 72, 10. For the varatra, see Rv. x. 101, 6. Perhaps | Vedische Studien, 2, 14.

² ii. 24.

³ xiii. 3.

⁴ ix. 58. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of

¹ Av. v. 8, 4; Rv. vili. 34, 3; 66, 8. | II; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, iv. I, 5, 2;

Sheep as well as kine were captured from the enemy.3 The Soma sieve was made of sheep's wool, and is repeatedly referred to (avi, mesī, avya, avyaya).4 Considerable herds must have existed, as Rirāśva is said5 to have slain one hundred rams, and in a Danastuti ('Praise of Gifts')6 a hundred sheep are mentioned as a gift. The (mesa, vṛṣṇi8) ram was sometimes castrated (petva).9 The main use of sheep was their wool; hence the expression 'woolly' (\$\bar{u}rn\bar{a}vat\bar{i}\$)\$ is employed to designate a sheep. In the Vājasanevi Samhitā11 the ram is described as 'woolly,' and as 'the skin of beasts, quadruped and biped,' with reference to the use of its wool as clothing for men and shelter for animals. Pūsan is said 12 to weave raiment from the wool of sheep. Normally the sheep stayed out at pasture; in an obscure passage of the Rigveda 13 reference appears to be made to rams in stall. Gandhāra 14 ewes were famous for their wool. Pischel 15 considers that the Paruṣṇī 16 was named from its richness in sheep, parus 17 denoting the 'flocks' of wool.

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3 Rv. viii. 86, 2.
  4 Rv. ix. 109, 16; 36, 4, etc. See
Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, I,
  5 Rv. i. 416, 17.
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7 Rv. i. 43, 6; 116, 16, etc.

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10 Rv. viii. 67, 3. Cf. x. 75, 8; so
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urā, x. 95. 3.

11 xiii. 50. 12 Rv. x. 26, 6.

13 x, 106, 5,

14 Rv. i. 126, 7.

15 Vedische Studien, 2, 210. 16 Rv. iv. 22, 2; v. 52, 9.

17 Rv. ix. 15, 6; parvan, iv. 22, 2. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 229. 230; Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 348.

Aśani.—Zimmer1 cites this word from the Rigveda2 as denoting a sling stone, and compares a similar use of Adri.3 In either case, however, the weapons are mythical, being used in descriptions of Indra's deeds. Schrader also cites asan in this sense, but no Vedic passage requires this sense.

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1 Altindisches Leben, 301.
                                              4 Prehistoric Antiquities, 221.
2 vi. 6, 5. Cf. 1, 121, 9.
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Aśma-gandhā ('rock-smell') is a plant mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,1 probably identical with the late aśvagandhā, 'horse-smell' (Physalis flexuosa).

⁶ Rv. viii. 67, 3.

⁸ Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 3, 7, 4, etc.

⁹ Rv. vii. 18, 17; Av. iv. 4, 8; Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 22, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxix. 58; 59.

¹ xiii. 8, 1, 16, with Eggeling's note in the Sacred Books of the East, 44, 427.

Aśva is the commonest word for 'horse' in the Vedic literature. The horse is also called 'the runner' (atya), 'the swift' (arvant), 'the strong,' for pulling (vājin), 'the runner' (sapti), and 'the speeding' (haya). The mare is termed aśvā, atyā, arvatī, vaḍavā, etc. Horses of various colour were known, dun (harita, hari), ruddy (aruṇa, aruṣa, piśanga, rohita), dark brown (śyāva), white (śveta), etc. A white horse with black ears is mentioned in the Atharvaveda as of special value.¹ Horses were highly prized,² and were not rare, as Roth³ thought, for as many as four hundred mares are mentioned in one Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts').⁴ They were on occasion ornamented with pearls and gold.⁵

Mares were preferred for drawing chariots because of their swiftness and sureness.⁶ They were also used for drawing carts, but were not ordinarily so employed.⁷ No mention is made of riding in battle, but for other purposes it was not unknown.⁸

Horses were often kept in stalls,⁹ and fed there.¹⁰ But they were also allowed to go out to grass,¹¹ and were then hobbled.¹² They were watered to cool them after racing.¹³ Their attendants

¹ Av. v. 17, 15.

² Rv. i. 83, 1; iv. 32, 17; v. 4, 11; viii. 78, 2, etc.

³ Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 35, 686.

⁴ Rv. viii. 55, 3. Cf. v. 33, 8; vi. 47, 22-24; 63, 10; viii. 6, 47; 46, 22, and Hopkins, American Journal of Philology, 15, 157.

⁵ Rv. x. 68, 11.

6 Pischel, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 35, 712-714; Vedische Studien, 1, 10, 305. Cf. ratho vadhumän, Rv. i. 126, 3; vii. 18, 22, väjinīvän, vii. 69, 1.

7 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 5, 4, 35.

8 The Asvins ride, Rv. v. 61, 1-3. An aśva-sāda is referred to in Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 13; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 7, 1; and riding is meant in Rv. i. 162, 17; 163, 9. Av. xi. 10, 24. is doubtful. Cf. Hopkins, Journal of the

American Oriental Society, 13, 262; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 221. Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 230, denies the use; but see p. 295, where it is admitted for ordinary purposes.

⁹ Cf. the epithet of richness, 'filling the stalls with horses' (aśva-pastya), in Rv. ix. 86, 41, and see Av. vi. 77, 1; xix. 55, 1.

10 Av. loc. cit.

11 Zimmer, op. cit., 232, denies this, but it is the natural sense of the Vajasaneyi Samhitā, xv. 41.

12 The expression for this is padbīśa, Rv. i. 162, 14. 16; Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 2, 13; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 1, 12; Śānkhāyana Āranyaka, ix. 7. Cf. Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1, 234-236.

13 Rv. ii. 13. 5; 34. 3; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, i. 11. 6; Pischel, op. cit., 1. are frequently referred to (aśva-pāla, 14 aśva-pa, 15 aśva-pati). 16 Stallions were frequently castrated (vadhri). 17

Besides reins (raśmayah), reference is made to halters $(aśv\bar{a}bhidh\bar{a}n\bar{\imath})$, 18 and whips $(aśv\bar{a}jani)$. 19 See also Ratha.

Horses from the Indus were of special value,²⁰ as also horses from the Sarasvatī.

¹⁴ Śāṅkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xvi. 4, 5.
 ¹⁵ Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 11; Tait-

tirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 9, 1.

¹⁶ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvi. 24; Kāthaka Samhitā, xvii. 13.

17 Rv. viii. 46, 30.

¹⁸ Av. iv. 36, 10; v. 14, 6; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vi. 35; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, vi. 3, 1, 26; xiii. 1, 2, 1. ¹⁹ Rv. v. 62, 7; vi. 75, 13; Vājasanevi Samhitā, xxix. 50.

²⁰ Brhadāranyaka Upanisad, vi. 2, 13; Sānkhāyana Āranyaka, ix. 7; vājinīvatī as epithet of Sindhu, Rv. x. 75, 8, of Sarasvatī, i. 3, 10; ii. 41, 18; vi. 61, 3. 4; vii. 96, 3; Pischel, op. cit., i. 10. Cf. Zimmer, op. cit., 230-232.

Aśva-tara, Aśva-tarī are respectively the masculine and feminine name of 'mule.' These animals are mentioned frequently from the Atharvaveda¹ onwards. They were known not to be fruitful,² and were probably considered inferior to horses,³ but a mule-car was quite common.⁴

1 iv. 4, 8; viii. 8, 22; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, Mi. 47; iv. 9; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xii. 4, 1, 10, etc.; Jaiminīya Upanisad Brāhmaņa, i. 4, 4.

² Taittiriya Samhitā, vii. 1, 1, 2, 3. Cf. Adbhutá Brāhmana in Indische Studien, 1, 40.

3 As were asses, Taittirīya Samhitā,

v. 1, 2, 2; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, vi. 4,

4.7.

4 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iv. 9; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iv. 2, 1 (in both passages aśwatarī-ratha). Cf. Oertel, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 175.

r. Asva-ttha ('horse-stand') is one of India's greatest trees, the Ficus religiosa, later called pippala¹ (now Peepal). Vessels made of the wood of the Aśvattha are mentioned in the Rigveda,² and the tree itself is constantly referred to later.³ Its hard wood formed the upper of the two pieces of wood used for kindling fire, the lower being of Śamī.⁴ It planted its roots in shoots of other trees, especially the Khadira, and destroyed them;⁵ hence it is called 'the destroyer' (vaibādha). Its berries

¹ The word pippula as a neuter occurs once in the Rv. (i. 164, 20) designating the berry of the Peepal-tree.

² i. 135, 8; x. 97, 5.

Atharvaveda, iii. 6, 1; iv. 37, 4, etc.

⁴ Av. vi. 11, 1; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5, 1, 13.

⁵ Av. iii. 6.

are referred to as sweet, and as eaten by birds.⁶ The gods are said to sit under it in the third heaven.⁷ It and Nyagrodha are styled the 'crested ones' (sikhandin).⁸

- Rv. i. 164, 20. 22.
 Av. v. 4, 3. Cf. Chāndogya Upanişad, viii, 5, 3; Kauşītaki Upanişad, i. 3.
 Av. v. 4, 3. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 57, 58.
- 2. Aśva-ttha.—This prince is celebrated in a Dānastuti¹ as having given gifts to Pāyu. He is identified with Divodāsa by Griffith,² but it is impossible to be certain of this identification.
- ¹ Rv. vi. 47, 24. ² Hymns of the Rigveda, 1, 611. The name is spelt Asvatha in the text, but

that is merely the usual shortened spelling of the group tth.

Aśva-dāvan.—Ludwig¹ finds a prince of this name in a passage of the Rigveda,² where a gift of fifty horses is mentioned, but the word appears to be an epithet of Indra ('bestower of horses').

1 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 274.

² v. 18, 3.

Aśva-pati ('lord of horses') is a name of a prince of the Kekayas, who instructed Prācīnaśāla and other Brahmins.¹

¹ Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 11, 4; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, x. 6, 1, 2.

Aśva-medha ('offering a horse-sacrifice') is a prince mentioned in a hymn of the Rigveda,¹ which contains a Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts') of Tryaruṇa, and to which three verses have been added in praise of Aśvamedha. See also Āśvamedha.

1 v. 27, 4-6. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 275.

Aśva-yujau. See Naksatra.

Aśvala, the Hotr priest of Janaka, King of Videha, appears as an authority in the Brhadāraņyaka Upaniṣad (iii. 1, 2. 10).

Aśva-vāra, Aśva-vāla ('hair of a horse's tail').—The former form occurs in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā,¹ the latter in the

Kāṭhaka² and Kapiṣṭhala Saṃhitās³ and Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,⁴ denoting a species of reed (Saccharum spontaneum).

2 xxiv, 8.
 3 xxxviii. 1.
 4 iii. 4, 1, 7. Cf. Von Schroeder's
 edition of the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, i., p. xv.

Aśva-sūkti is the name of a seer to whom the Rigveda Anukramanī ascribes two hymns of the Rigveda. The Pañca-viṃśa Brāhmana knows a Sāman of Aśvasūkti.

1 viii. 14; 15. 2 xix. 4, 10. Cf. Oldenberg, Zeit- | schrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 230, n. 4.

Aśvini. See Naksatra.

Aṣāḍha Kaiśin is the name of a man referred to in a corrupt and obscure passage of the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā¹ as connected with the defeat of the Pañcālas by the Kuntis.

1 xxvi. 9; Kapisthala, xli. 7. See Weber, Indische Studien, 3. 471.

Aṣāḍha Uttara Pārāśarya is mentioned as a teacher in a Vamśa or Genealogy in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 41, 1).

Asādhā. See Nakṣatra.

Aṣāḍhi Sauśromateya was a man who is stated in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (vi. 2, 1, 37) to have died because the heads for the sacrifice in connection with the laying of the bricks of the fire-altar had been obtained in an improper manner.

Aṣṭaka is mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa ¹ as one of the sons of Viśvāmitra.

1 vii. 17. Also in the Sānkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xv. 26.

Astakā. See Māsa.

Aṣṭa-karṇī is an expression which occurs in one passage of the Rigveda, and which Roth was at first inclined to interpret

1 x. 62, 7. ² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s. v.

as a proper name. There can, however, be no doubt that it means a cow, not a man, as suggested by Grassmann. The exact reason why a cow should be so described is uncertain. Roth³ was later inclined to see in it the sense 'having pierced ears,' similar epithets being at a later period known to Pāṇini 4 (bhinna-karna, chinna-karna). Grassmann's more obvious rendering, 'having the sign for (the number) 8 marked on the ear,' is supported by the similar epithets, 'having the mark of a lute on the ear' (karkari-karnyali), 'having the mark of a sickle on the ear' (dātra-karnyah), 'having the mark of a stake on the ear' (sthūnākarnyah), 'having the ears bored' (chidra-karnyah), and vistyakarnyah, given in the Maitrāyanī Samhitā.5 The simple meaning, 'with marked ears,' is, however, supported by the same passage of the Maitrāyanī, where the verb aks occurs in the sense 'to mark.' In the Atharvaveda the mark used is the Mithuna, no doubt as a magical device to secure fertility.

The marking of ears was apparently a regular practice. It is twice referred to in the Atharvaveda.6 The mark is termed laksman,7 and was made with a copper-knife 8 (lohita). The Maitrayanī Samhitā 9 forbids the use of an arrow-shaft (tejana), or of iron, but permits that of a stem of sugar-cane (iksu-kānḍa) or copper.

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3 Cf. Böhtlingk, Dictionary, s.v.
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9 Loc. cit.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 234. 348; Delbrück, Gurupūjākaumudī, 48, 49; Weber, Indische Studien, 13, 466; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 387.

Astā-damstra Vairūpa.—To him the Pañcavimsa Brāhmana (viii. 9, 21) ascribes two Sāmans.

Aştrā is the plougher's 'goad,' the badge of agriculture. It is mentioned several times in the Rigveda.1

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1 iv. 57, 4; vi. 53, 9; 58, 2; astrā-vin Religionswissenschaft, 1, 63; Hille-occurs in x. 102, 8. See also Kausika brandt, Vedische Mythologie, 3, 364, n. 8.
Sutra, 80. Cf. Roscher, Archiv für
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Asamāti Rātha-praustha.—The story of the quarrel between Asamāti, the Ikṣvāku prince of the Rathaproṣtha family, and

⁴ vi. 3, 115.

⁵ iv. 2, 9. 6 vi. 141, 1. 2; xii. 4, 6.

⁷ Av. vi. 141, 2; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, loc, cit.

⁸ Av., loc. cit.

his priests, the Gaupāyanas, is found only in the later Brāhmaṇas.¹ It appears to be based on a misreading of the Rigveda,² where asamāti is merely an adjective. The later story is that the king was induced to abandon his family priests by two Asuras, Kirāta and Ākuli, who by their magic compassed the death of Subandhu, one of the brother priests, and that the others revived him by the use of the hymns (Rigveda, x. 57-60).

1 Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 167 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 18, 41 et seq.); Sāṭyāyanaka, cited in Sāyaṇa on Rv. x. 57, 1; 60, 7; Bṛhaddevatā, vii. 83 et seq., with Macdonell's notes; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 12, 5.

² x. 60, 2. 5; Av. vi. 79, 1. Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 499; Max Müller, Journal of the R Asiatic Society, 1866, 426-465: 30 lingk's Dictionary, s.v.; Hopkine ctions of the Connecticut Academy and Sciences, 15, 48, n. 1.

Asi usually denotes the sacrificial knife, but occasio. in appears to mean a knife used in war. Mention is made of a sheath (vavri) to which a belt (vāla) was attached. The word asi-dhārā also denotes 'sheath.'

- ¹ Rv. i. 162, 20; x. 79, 6; 86, 18; Av. ix. 3, 9; x. 1, 20, etc.
- ² Av. xi. 9, 1. The use of the 'sword' increases in the Epic period. See Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 284.
- 3 Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xv. 4.
- 4 Ibid.; Maitrayanī Samhitā, ii. 6, 5.
- ⁶ Jaiminīya Upanişad Brāhmaņa, iii. 139.

Asiknī ('black') is the name in the Rigveda¹ of the river known later as Candra-bhāgā, and to the Greeks as Akesines, now the Chenab in the Punjab.

- 1 viii. 20, 25; x. 75, 5; Nirukta, ix. 26. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 12.
- 1. Asita is a name of the 'black snake,' referred to in the later Samhitas.1
- 1 Av. iii. 27, 1; v. 13, 5. 6; vi. 56, 2, Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 18; perhaps etc.; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 10, 1; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 37.
- 2. Asita.—(a) A mythical sage of this name figures as a magician in the Atharvaveda in conjunction with Gaya¹ or with Jamadagni.² In the Satapatha Brāhmaņa³ he appears as

¹ Av. i. 14, 4. ² Av. vi. 137, 1. ³ xiii. 4, 3, 11.

Asita Dhānva,⁴ and as Daivala or Devala in the Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa⁵ and Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā.⁶

- ⁴ Dhānvana in the Śāṅkhāyana of xxii. 11. Cf. Ludwig, Translation Srauta Sūtra, xvi. 2, 19. of the Rigveda, 3, 132. of the Rigveda, 3, 132.
- (b) Asita Vārṣa-gaṇa is a pupil of Harita Kasyapa according to the Vaṃśa or Genealogy in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.¹

¹ vi. 5, 3 (Kāṇva=vi. 4, 33, Mādhyandina).

Asita-mṛga is the designation in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa¹ of a family of the Kaśyapas who were excluded from a sacrifice by Janamejaya, but who took away the conduct of the offering from the Bhūtavīras, whom the king employed. In the Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa² and the Ṣaḍviṃsa Brāhmaṇa³ the Asitamṛgas are called 'sons of the Kaśyapas,' and one is mentioned as Kusurubindu⁴ Auddālaki.

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<sup>1</sup> vii. 27. Cf. Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 43. 345.

<sup>2</sup> i. 75.
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4 Variously read as Asurbinda, Kusurbinda, Kusurubinda.

Asura-vidyā, 'the science of the Asuras,' the term used in the Śāṅkhāyana and Āśvalāyana¹ Śrauta Sūtras as the equivalent of the term māyā employed in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,² clearly means 'magic,' as it is rendered by Professor Eggeling.³

¹ x. 7. ² xiii. 4, 3, 11. Cf. Śāṅkhāyana 368. Śrauta Sūtra, x. 61, 2. 21.

Astr, 'shooter,' is a term frequently used in the Rigveda¹ and Atharvaveda² for the archer who fought from the chariot.

¹ i. 8, 4; 64, 10; ii. 42, 2, etc.
² vi. 93, 1. 2; xi. 2, 7. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 296.

Ahan, 'day.' Like other peoples, the Indians used night as a general expression of time as well as day, but by no means predominantly. Night is also termed the dark (kṛṣṇa), as

¹ Rv. iv. 16, 19; viii. 26, 3; i. 70, 4. Cf. Av. x. 7, 42.

opposed to the light (arjuna), day.² Aho-rātra³ is a regular term for 'day and night' combined.

The day itself is variously divided. In the Atharvaveda' a division into 'the rising sun' (udyan sūryah), 'the coming together of the cows' (saṃ-gava), 'midday' (madhyaṃ-dina), 'afternoon' (aparāhṇa), and 'sunset' (astaṃ-yan) is found. In the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa the same series appears with 'early' (prātar) and 'evening' (sāyāhna) substituted for the first and last members, while a shorter list gives prātar, saṃgava, sāyam. In the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā there is the series 'dawn' (uṣas), saṃgava, madhyaṃdina, and aparāhṇa.

The morning is also, according to Zimmer, called api-sarvara, as the time when the dark is just past. It is named svasara, as the time when the cows are feeding, before the first milking at the samgava, or when the birds are awakening. It is also called pra-pitva, according to Zimmer. But Geldner points out that that term refers to the late midday, which also is called api-sarvara, as bordering on the coming night, being the time when day is hastening to its close, as in a race. From another point of view, evening is called abhi-pitva, the time when all come to rest. Or again, morning and evening are denoted as the dawning of the sun (uditā sūryasya), or its setting (ni-mruc). The midday is regularly madhyam ahnām, madhye, for madhyamdina. Samgava is the forenoon, between the early morning (prātar) and midday (madhyamdina).

The divisions of time less than the day are seldom precisely given. In the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, 17 however, a day and

² Rv. vi. 9, 1.

³ Rv. x. 190, 2; Av. xiii. 3, 8, etc.; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiii. 41, etc.

⁴ ix. 6, 45.

⁵ i. 5, 3, 1; 4, 9, 2. ⁶ iv. 2, 11.

⁷ Rv. iii. 9, 7; cf. Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 230.

⁸ Rv. ii. 34, 8; ix. 94, 2.

⁹ Rv. ii. 19, 2; 34, 5.

¹⁰ Rv. vii. 41, 4; viii. 1, 29. Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 127 et seq., interprets paritakmyāyām (Rv. i. 116, 15) similarly.

¹¹ Altindisches Leben, 362.

¹² Vedische Studien, 2, 155-179.

¹³ Rv. i. 126, 3; iv. 34, 5.

¹⁴ Rv. vii. 41, 4.

¹⁵ Rv. viii. 27, 20.

¹⁶ Cf. Rv. v. 76, 3 (samgave, prātar ahno, madhyamdine); Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, ii. I, I, 3; Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, ii. 12, 4; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 18, 14; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 3, 112, 113. Zimmer, op. cit., 362, places it too early—before the cows are driven out.

¹⁷ xii. 3, 2, 5. Cf. Taittiriya Brāhmana, iii. 10, 1, 1 et seq.

night make up 30 muhūrtas; I muhūrta=15 kṣipra; I kṣipra=15 etarhi; I etarhi=15 idāni; I idāni=15 breathings; I breathing=I spiration; I spiration=I twinkling (nimeṣa), etc. In the Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka¹¹³ the series is dhvaṃsayo, nimeṣāḥ, kāṣṭhāḥ, kalāḥ, kṣanā, muhūrtā, ahorātrāḥ. A thirtyfold division of day as well as of night is seen in one passage of the Rigveda¹¹³ by Zimmer, who compares the Babylonian sixtyfold division of the day and night. But the expression used—thirty Yojanas—is too vague and obscure—Bergaigne²⁰ refers it to the firmament—to build any theory upon with safety.

The longer divisions of time are regularly 'half month' (ardha-māsa), 'month' (māsa), 'season' (rtu) and 'year' (samvatsara), which often²¹ occur in this sequence after ahorātrāni ('days and nights').

18 vii. 20. Cf. Śānkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xiv. 78 et seq.; Weber, Indische Streifen, 1, 92-95.

19 Rv. i. 123, 8.

20 Religion Védique, 3, 283 et seq. Cf. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. kratu,

²¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 1, 15; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 12, 7; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxii. 28; Śānkhāyana Āranyaka, vii. 20; Brhadāranyaka Upanisad, iii. 8, 9, etc. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 361-363.

Ahalyā Maitreyī is practically a mythical name, the existence of the lady whose story is alluded to in several Brāhmaṇas¹ being derived from the epithet of Indra, 'lover of Ahalyā' (ahalyāyai jāra).

¹ Satapatha Brāhmaņa, iii. 3, 4, 18; Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 79; Şadvimśa Brāhmana, i. 1.*

Ahi.—This word occurs frequently from the Rigveda 1 onwards to denote 'snake.' Reference is several times 2 made to its casting its slough. Mention is also made of the serpent's peculiar movement, 3 which earns for it the designation 4 of 'the toothed rope' (datvatī rajjuḥ). The poisonous character

¹ vii. 104, 7, etc. The word sarpa, which is usual in the Atharvaveda, occurs only once (x. 16, 6) in the Rv.

² Rv. ix. 86, 44; Av. i. 27; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 2, 6, 13; Brhadāraṇyaka

Upanisad, iv. 4. 10; Jaiminīya Brāh. maņa, i. 9; ii. 139; Kāṭhaka Upanisad, ii. 6; 17.

³ Aitareya Āraņyaka, v. 1, 4.

⁴ Av. iv. 3, 2.

of its bite is spoken of,⁵ as well as the torpidity of the reptile in winter, when it creeps into the earth.⁶ The cast skin is used as an amulet against highwaymen.⁷ Mention is made of a mythical horse, Paidva, which the Aśvins gave to Pedu as a protection against snakes,⁸ and which is invoked as a destroyer of serpents.⁹ The ichneumon (nakula) is regarded as their deadly enemy, and as immune against their poison through the use of a healing plant,¹⁰ while men kill them with sticks¹¹ or strike off their heads.¹²

Many species of snakes are mentioned: see Aghāśva, Ajagara, Asita, Kankaparvan, Karikrata, Kalmāṣagrīva, Kasarnīla, Kumbhīnasa, Tirascarāji, Taimāta, Darvi, Dasonasi, Puṣkarasāda, Pṛdāku, Lohitāhi, Śarkoṭa, Śvitra, Sarpa.

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<sup>5</sup> Rv. vii. 104, 7; Av. x. 4, 4 et seq.;

6, 56.

<sup>6</sup> Av. xii. 1, 46.

<sup>7</sup> Av. i. 27.

<sup>8</sup> Rv. i. 117-119.

<sup>9</sup> Av. x. 4, 6. 10.

<sup>10</sup> Av. vi. 139, 5; viii. 7, 23.

<sup>11</sup> Av. x. 4, 9.

<sup>12</sup> Av. vi. 67, 2. See Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 94, 95.
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Ahīnā Āśvatthya was a sage (muni) who achieved immortality by knowledge of a certain rite (sāvitram).¹

¹ Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 10, 9, 10. | able. The second may be compared The form of the first name is remark- | with Asvattha.

Ā.

Ākuli.—This mythical priest plays, together with Kirāta, a part in the later tale of Asamāti and the Gaupāyanas.

Āktākṣya is mentioned as a teacher who had peculiar views on the fire ritual (agni-citi), which are rejected in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.¹

1 vi. 1, 2, 24. Cf. Lévi, La Doctrine du Sacrifice, 140.

Ā-kramaṇa.—In the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa¹ (i. 3) this word is used with the specific sense of 'steps to climb trees.'

Ākhu.—The exact sense of this word is uncertain. Zimmer 1 renders it 'mole,' while Roth 2 prefers 'mouse' or 'rat.' It is frequently mentioned in the later Samhitās, 3 and is known to the Rigveda, 4 where, however, the word is regarded by Pischel 5 as having acquired the secondary sense of 'thief.' This is denied by Hillebrandt. 6

1 Altindisches Leben, 84, 85, followed by Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 142.

² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., followed by Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 317, 318.

8 Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 14, 1; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 7; Vāja-

saneyi Samhitā, iii. 57; xxiv. 26; 28; Av. vi. 50, 1.

4 ix. 67, 30.

⁵ Vedische Studien, 2, 246; Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 701.

6 Zeitschrift, 48, 418; Vedainterpreta-

tion, 7

Ā-khyāna.—In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa¹ we hear of the Saunaḥśepa Ākhyāna, 'the story of Śunaḥśepa,' which is told by the Hotr priest at the Rājasūya ('royal inauguration'). The series of stories² used at the Aśvamedha ('horse sacrifice') during the year while the sacrificial horse is allowed to wander at its will is called the 'cyclic' (pari-plavam). The Aitareya Brāhmaṇa³ mentions also Ākhyāna-vids ('men versed in tales'), who tell the Sauparṇa legend, elsewhere⁴ known as a Vyākhyāna. Yāska, in the Nirukta,⁵ frequently uses the term, sometimes in a pregnant sense as denoting the doctrine of the Aitihāsikas or traditional interpreters of the Rigveda.⁶

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<sup>1</sup> vii. 18, 10. Cf. Śāńkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 27.
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Ā-khyāyikā.—This word occurs apparently but once in the Vedic literature, in the late Taittirīya Āraṇyaka,¹ where its significance is doubtful.

1 i. 6, 3. Cf. Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 20, n. 1.

Āgastya appears as a teacher in the Aitareya (iii. 1, 1) and Śāṅkhāyana (vii. 2) Āraṇyakas.

² Śatapatha Brāhmana, xiii. 4, 3, 2.

⁸ iii. 25, 1.

⁴ Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, iii. 6, 2, 7.

⁵ v. 21; vii. 7. ⁶ xi. 19; 25.

Cf. Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 16 et seq.

Āgni-veśi Śatri.—A prince of this name appears to be referred to in a Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts') in the Rigveda.

1 v. 34, 9. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 155,

Āgni-veśya.—Several teachers of this name are mentioned in the Vaṃśas or Genealogies of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad. In the Mādhyandina recension¹ Āgniveśya is a pupil of Saitava. In the Kāṇva recension he is a pupil of Saṇḍilya and Ānabhimlāta in one Vaṃśa,² and of Gārgya in the second Vaṃśa.³

¹ ii. 5, 21, iv. 5, 27. ² ii. 6, 2. ³ iv. 6, 2.

Ā-ghāṭi is a musical instrument, the 'cymbal,' used to accompany dancing. It is known to the Rigveda 1 and Atharvaveda.2

1 x. 146, 2. 2 iv. 37, 4 (āghāṭa). Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 289.

Āngirasa is a title denoting a claim to be of the family of Angiras, borne by many sages and teachers, like Kṛṣṇa, Ājīgarti, Cyavana, Ayāsya, Saṃvarta, Sudhanvan, etc.

Āja-keśin is the name of a family in which, according to the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (i. 9, 3), Baka used violence against Indra.

Ājani.—This word is used to denote a 'goad' in the Atharvaveda (iii. 25, 5).

Ājāta-śatrava. See Bhadrasena.

Āji is constantly used in the Rigveda¹ and the later literature to express the sense of 'a race,' and only seldom denotes 'a battle.' Horse-racing was one of the favourite amusements of the Vedic Indian,² the other being dicing

¹ v. 37, 7; vi. 24, 6, etc. Geldner, Vedische Studien, 1, 120; 2, 2 Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 291; 1 et seq.

(Akṣa). The racecourse, called Kāṣṭhā³ or Āji⁴ itself, appears from the Atharvaveda⁵ to have been a quasi-circular one to a mark (kārṣman⁶) and back again. In the Rigveda the course is described as broad ($urv\bar{\imath}$), and the distance as measured out ($ap\bar{a}vrht\bar{a}$ aratnayah). Prizes (dhana) were offered ($dh\bar{a}$), and eagerly competed for. Other words for victory and the prize are $k\bar{a}ra^9$ and bhara; and to 'run a race' is described by the expressions $\bar{a}jim$ aj, i, $dh\bar{a}v$, sr. The person who instituted a race is referred to as $\bar{a}ji$ -srt, and Indra is called $\bar{a}ji$ -krt1³ ('race-maker'), and $\bar{a}ji$ -pati1⁴ ('lord of the race').

The swift steeds (vājin, atya) used for the races were often washed and adorned. According to Pischel the name of one swift mare is preserved—viz., Viśpalā, whose broken leg was replaced by the Aśvins in a race; but the interpretation is very doubtful. Geldner has also found a comic picture of a horse-chariot race in the Mudgala hymn in the Rigveda, but Bloomfield has shown that that interpretation is unsound. Pischel of also seeks to show that races were run in honour of gods, but the evidence for the theory is inadequate.

- 3 Rv. viii. 80, 8; Av. ii. 14, 6.
- 4 Rv. iv. 24, 8; Av. xiii. 2, 4.
- 5 ii. 14, 6; xiii. 2 4.
- 6 Rv. ix. 36, 1; 74, 8.
- ⁷ The sense is doubtful in Rv. viii. 80, 8. Zimmer suggests that it may mean 'the course is straight,' without twistings, for which idea cf. Geldner, Vedische Studien, 2, 160, quoting the comparison of the courser's race with a bowstring (Rv. iii. 53, 24). It is also rendered 'the barriers are removed.'
- ⁸ Rv. i. 81, 3; 116, 15; vi. 45, 1 et seq.; viii. 80, 8; ix. 53, 2; 109, 10. According to Geldner, Vedische Studien, 1, 120, n. 2, dhana is from dhan, 'start.' Cf. Pischel, ibid., 171. Cf. dhanasā, Rv. i. 112, 7. 10; ii. 10, 6; viii. 3, 15, etc.
 - ⁹ Rv. v. 29, 8; ix. 14, 1. ¹⁰ Rv. v. 29, 8; ix. 16, 5, etc.
- ¹¹ Aitareya Brāhmaņa, ii. 25; iv. 27; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, ii. 4, 3, 4; v. 1, 1, 3; 4, 1; vi. 1, 2, 12; vii. 1, 2, 1, etc.

- 12 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 1, 5, 10. 28; xi. 1, 2, 13.
 - 13 Rv. viii. 53, 6.
 - 14 Ibid., 14.
 - 15 Rv. ii. 34, 3; ix. 109, 10; x. 68, 11. 16 Vedische Studien, 1, 171-173. Cf.
- Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 127 et seq.
- ¹⁷ Rv. i. 116, 15. Pischel finds here a race in honour of Vivasvant, but his equation of Khela and Vivasvant is denied even by Sieg, who accepts his theory of Vispalā.
 - 18 Vedische Studien, 2, 1 et seq.
- 19 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 541 et seq. Von Schroeder, Mysterium und Mimus im Rigveda, 346 et seq., follows Geldner. Gf. Winternitz, Vienna Oriental Journal, 23, 137.
 - 20 Vedische Studien, 1, 172.
 - 21 Sieg, op. cit., 128.

A formal race, however, is a feature of the ritual of the Rājasūya or royal consecration.²²

²² Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 8, 15; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 7, 9; Kāṭhaka v. 4, 2; 3. Samhitā, xv. 8; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, cf. Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 43.

Ājīgarti.—See Śunaḥśepa, who bears this patronymic in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.¹ He is called an Āṅgirasa in the Kāṭhaka Samhitā.²

1 vii. 17. Cf. Śāńkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xvi. 11, 2.

2 xix. 11.

Ajya. See Ghrta.

Āñjana.—A salve frequently referred to in the Atharvaveda,¹ which came from Mount Trikakubh² in the Himālaya, and was used to anoint the eyes.³ The region of the Yamunā⁴ is also given as a possible place of origin, and the ointment is declared as potent to remove jaundice, Yakṣma, Jāyānya, and other diseases.⁵ A female ointment-maker is mentioned in the list of victims of the Puruṣamedha ('human sacrifice').⁶

¹ iv. 9; vi. 102, 3; ix. 6, 11; xix. 44. ² Av. iv. 9, 9. 10; xix. 44, 6.

³ Cf. Av. iv. 9, I (aksyam); Aitareya Brāhmaņa, i. 3. Hence the legend in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vi. 1, 1, 5; cf. i. 2, 1, 2; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 6, 3; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 1, 3, 15; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, iv. 3.

4 Av. iv. 9, 10.

5 Av. xix. 44, I et seq.

⁶ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 14 (āñjanī-kārī); Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii.

4, 10, I.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 5, 69; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda 381 et seq.; American Journal of Philology, 17, 405, 406; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 159.

Āṭikī is the name of the wife of Uṣasti in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (i. 10, 1).

Ātņāra.—Patronymic of Para.

Āḍambara was a kind of 'drum.' A 'drummer' (āḍambarā-ghāta) is mentioned in the list of victims at the Puruṣa-medha ('human sacrifice') in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā.¹

¹ xxx. 19. Cf. Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xiv. 4, 8, 1.

Ani.—This word, which is found in the Rigveda, but rarely later,2 appears to be best taken with Roth3 and Zimmer4 as denoting the part of the axle of the chariot which is inserted into the nave of the wheel. Sayana renders it as lynch-pin, and this sense is accepted by Leumann, being apparently also found in the Nirukta.6 In one place in the Rigveda7 the word appears by synecdoche to denote the whole chargot, but the passage is, according to Geldner,8 completely obscure.

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1 i. 35. 6: v. 43. 8.
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5 Etymologisches Wörterbuch, jo.
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Andīka ('bearing eggs') is a term found in the Atharvaveda1 denoting an edible plant, apparently with fruit or leaves of egg shape (ānḍa), akin to the lotus.

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1 iv. 34, 5; v. 17, 16. In the first passage the Paippalada version has paundarika in its place; Whitney, Weber, Indische Studien, 18, 138.
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Ātā.—The framework of the door of a house appears to be denoted by the plural of this word in the Rigveda¹ (though in all passages there it is used only by synecdoche of the doors of the sky), and in the Vajasanevi Samhita.² Zimmer³ compares the Latin antae, to which the word etymologically corresponds.4

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1 i. 56, 5; 113, 14; iii. 43, 6; ix. 5, 5
(ātaih).
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3 Altindisches Leben, 154. Brugmann, Grundriss, 1, 209; 2,

Ati, an aquatic bird. The Apsarases in the legend of Purūravas and Urvasī appear to him like Ātis, probably swans.1 The birds appear also in the list of animals in the Asvamedha ('horse sacrifice'),2 where Mahīdhara3 renders them as the

² In a Mantra in the Aitareya Āraņyaka, ii. 7. See Keith's edition, pp. 266, 267, and VanL

³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

⁴ Altindisches Leben, 247.

⁶ vi. 32.

Cf. Pischel, Vedische 7 i. 63, 8. Studien, 1, 96.

⁸ Geldner, ibid., 1, 141, n. 3.

² xxix. 5 (ātaih). Cf. ātābhih in Durga on Nirukta, iv. 18.

mana, xi. 5, 1, 4.

4 Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 13, 1;

¹ Rv. x. 95, 9. Cf. Satapatha Brāh- | Maītrāyanī Samhitā, iii, 14, 18; Vājasanevi Samhitā, xxiv. 34.

³ On Vājasaneyi Samhitā, loc. cit.

later Ādī (Turdus ginginianus), and Sāyaṇa⁴ quotes a view, according to which the Āti was the Cāṣa, or blue jay (Coracias indica).

4 On Taittiriya Samhita, loc. cit. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 89.

Ātithi-gva.—Patronymic of Indrota.

Ātreya is the patronymic of a pupil of Māṇṭi in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.¹ An Ātreya appears as a Purohita of Aṅga in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.² An Ātreya was regularly the priest in certain rites,³ and an Ātreyī occurs in an obscure passage in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.⁴

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1 ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3 (in both versions).

2 viii. 22.

3 Ibid., vii. 7; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,

iv. 3, 4, 21; Kātyāyana Srauta Sūtra,
x. 2, 21 (sadasaḥ purastāt).

4 i. 4, 5, 13. Cf. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
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Ātreyī-putra is mentioned as a pupil of Gautamīputra in a Vaṃśa, or Genealogy, in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (vi. 5, 2, in both versions).

Ātharvaṇa, a patronymic formed from the name of the mythic Atharvan, is found normally in the plural neuter as a designation of the hymns of the Atharvans. This use appears in the late nineteenth book of the Atharvaveda,¹ and in the Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa.² In the singular the expression Ātharvaṇa (Veda), though not occurring till the Chāndogya Upaniṣad,³ is earlier than the term 'Atharvaveda,' which is first found in the Sūtras.⁴ In the Nidāna Sūtra⁵ Ātharvaṇikas, or 'followers of the Atharvaveda,' appear.

Specific but mainly mythical Atharvanas are Kabandha, Brhaddiva, Bhişaj, Dadhyanc, and Vicarin.

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1 xix. 23, 1. 2 xii. 9, 10. 5 ii. 12. 8 vii. 1, 2. 4; 2, 1; 7, 1. 4 Śāńkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 2, 10, etc. 6 ti. 12. 6 ti.
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Ā-darśa, 'mirror,' is a term found only in the Upaniṣads¹ and Āraṇyakas.²

Brhadāraņyaka Upanişad, ii. 1, 9;
 iii. 9, 15; Chāndogya Upanişad, viii. 7,
 4; Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad, iv. 2; 11.

² Aitareya Āraņyaka, iii. 2, 4; Sāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka, viii. 7.

Ādāra was a kind of plant which was prescribed as a substitute for Soma.¹ It is identified in the Śatapatha Brāhmana² with Pūtīka.

Satapatha Brāhmaņa, iv. 5, 10, 4.
 kitā, xxiv. 3; Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra,
 xiv. 1, 2, 12. Cf. Kāthaka Sam- xxv. 12, 19.
 Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 276.

Ānanda-ja Cāndhanāyana is mentioned as a pupil of Śāmba in the Vamśa Brāhmana.¹

i Indische Studien, 4, 372.

Ānabhi-mlāta is mentioned in a Vaṃśa, or Genealogy, in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad¹ as a pupil of Ānabhimlāta.

1 ii. 6, 2 (not in the Mādhyandina version).

Ānava. See Anu.

Ānūka.—Geldner¹ thinks that in its solitary occurrence in the Rigveda² this word means an ornament. Roth³ takes it adverbially, and so do Ludwig and Oldenberg.

1 Vedische Studien, 3, 94. 2 v. 33, 9. 3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Āpayā is the name of a river mentioned once only in the Rigveda,¹ when it occurs between the Dṛṣadvatī and the Sarasvatī. Ludwig² was inclined to identify it with the Āpagā as a name for the Ganges, but Zimmer³ correctly places it near the Sarasvatī, either as the small tributary which flows past Thānesar or the modern Indramatī farther west, while Pischel⁴ assigns it to Kurukṣetra, of which the Āpayā is mentioned as a famous river in the Mahābhārata.⁵

¹ iii, 23, 4. ² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 200. But *ef. ibid.*, 4, 304.

³ Altindisches Leben, 18.

⁴ Vedische Studien, 2, 218. 5 Mahabharata, iii. 83, 68.

Ābayu is apparently the name of a plant in the Atharvaveda; the mustard plant may have been meant, but the sense is quite uncertain.

- 1 vi. 16, 1.
- ² Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 465, following the indication of the use of the hymn in the Kausika Sūtra.
- 3 Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 292; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 72.

Ābhi-pratāriņa.—Patronymic of Vrddhadyumna.

Ā bhūti Tvāṣṭra is mentioned in two Vaṃśas, or Genealogies, of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad¹ as a pupil of Viśvarūpa Tvāṣṭra, both teachers being no doubt equally mythical.

1 ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3 (in both recensions).

Amalaka (neuter), a common word later, is found in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (vii. 3, 1), denoting the Myrobalan fruit. Cf. Amalā.

Āmikṣā designates a mess of clotted curds. It is not known to the Rigveda, but occurs in all the later Samhitās,¹ Brāhmaṇas,² etc., and is associated with the Vaiśya in the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka.³

- 1 Av. x. 9, 13; Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 5, 5, 4; iii. 3, 9, 2; vi. 2, 5, 3; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, ii. 1, 9; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 21; 23, etc.
- ² Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 8, 1, 7, 9; ³ Loc. iii. 3, 3, 2, etc.; Taittirīya Āraṇyaka, ii. 2, 40.
- ii. 8, 8; Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 438 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 19, 99, 101); Chāndogya Upaniṣad, viii. 8, 5, etc.
- 3 Loc. cit. Cf. Mānava Srauta Sūtra, ii. 2, 40.

Āmba denotes in the Taittirīya¹ and Kāṭhaka² Saṃhitās a grain, called Nāmba in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.³

¹ i. 8, 10, 1. ² xv. 5, ³ v. 3, 3, 8.

Āmbaṣṭhya is mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (viii. 21) as a king, whose priest for the Rājasūya, or royal inauguration, was Nārada. Presumably the name is local, meaning 'King of

the Ambasthas,' as interpreted in the St. Petersburg Dictionary. Later the term Ambastha denotes 'a man of mingled Brāhmaṇa and Vaisya parentage by father and mother' respectively.

Ā-yatana.—The general sense of 'abode' or 'home' appears to be limited in one passage of the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (vii. 24, 2) to the sense of 'holy place,' 'sanctuary,' which is found in the epic.

Āyavasa is mentioned apparently as a king in a corrupt and unintelligible verse of the Rigveda.¹

 1 i. 122, 15. $\it Cf.$ Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 206; Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Āyu appears in the Rigveda¹ with Kutsa and Atithigva as having been defeated, with Indra's aid, by Tūrvayāṇa, who is believed by Pischel² to have been King of the Pakthas. Possibly he is elsewhere³ referred to as victorious, by Indra's aid, over Veśa. Elsewhere he is quite mythical.⁴

¹ i. 53, 10; ii. 14, 7; vi. 18, 3; viii. 53, 2; Bergaigne, Religion Védique, 1, 60.

60.
2 Vedische Studien, 1, 71-75.

3 Rv. x. 49, 5; but the word is possibly not a proper name.

4 Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, 100, 135, 140.

Ayuta. See Ghrta.

Ā-yudha, 'weapon,' in its widest sense covers the whole of a Kṣatriya's warlike equipment, which in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa¹ is summed up as horse-chariot (aśva-ratha), bow and arrows (iṣu-dhanva), and corselet (kavaca). As the bow and arrow (iṣu, dhanvan) were essential as the main weapons of the Vedic fighter, they are probably meant when Āyudha is used specifically of weapons, as often from the Rigveda² onwards. The battle hymn in the Rigveda³ confirms this view, as it presents to us the warrior armed with bow and arrow on his chariot, and clad in armour (Varman), with a guard (Hastaghna) on the left arm to avoid the friction of the bow-string. The corselet was not a single solid piece of metal, but consisted of many pieces fitted together (syūta);⁴ it may

¹ vii. 19, 2.

2 i. 39, 2; 61, 13; 92, 1; ii. 30, 9, etc.; Av. vi. 133, 2, etc.

have been made either of metal plates or, as is more likely, of some stiff material plated with metal. In addition the warrior wore a helmet (Śiprā). There is no trace of the use of a shield, nor is there any clear record of the employment of greaves or other guard for the feet.⁵ Skill in the use of weapons is referred to in the Rigveda.⁶

It is doubtful whether sling stones (Adri, Aśani) were in ordinary use. The hook $(ankuśa)^7$ also is merely a divine weapon, and the axe (svadhiti, vāśī, paraśu) does not occur in mortal combats. For the use of the spear see Rṣṭi, Rambhinī, Śakti, Śaru; of the sword, Asi, Kṛti. Neither weapon can be considered ordinary in warfare, nor was the club (Vajra) used. For the modes of warfare see Saṃgrāma.

⁵ Grassmann saw greaves in vaţūrinā padā in Rv. i. 133, 2, but this is most improbable.

6 i. 92, 1. Cf. Geldner, Vedische Studien, 3, 183; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 295.

7 Rv. viii. 17, 10; x. 44, 9; 134, 6;

Av. vi. 83, 3. Cf. Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 5, 87.

8 Rv. v. 32, 10; ix. 67, 30; x. 43, 9. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 298-301; Muir, Sanshrit Texts, 5, 469-472; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 281 et seq.

Āyogava.—Marutta Āvi-kṣita, the Āyogava king, is mentioned as a sacrificer in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, where also a Gāthā ('stanza') celebrating his sacrifice is cited. Cf. Ayogū.

1 xiii. 5, 4, 6. Cf. Śāńkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xvi, 9, 14-16.

Ārangara is one of the names of the bee found in the Rigveda. Other names are Sarah and Bhṛṅgā.

1 x. 106, 10. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 97.

Ārā, a word later known as an 'awl' or 'gimlet,' occurs in the Rigveda² only to designate a weapon of Pūṣan, with whose pastoral character its later use for piercing leather is consistent. Cf. Vāsī.

¹ Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 3, 365, n. 1.

² vi. 53, 8.

Āruņa Aupa-veśi.—So the manuscripts let us read the former word in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, but this is doubtless an error for Aruna.

Āruņi is the patronymic normally referring to Uddālaka, son of Aruņa Aupaveši. Uddālaka is probably also meant by Āruņi Yaśasvin, who occurs as a teacher of the Subrahmaṇyā (a kind of recitation) in the Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa. Āruṇis are referred to both in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa² and in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā,³ as well as in the Aitareya Āraṇyaka.⁴

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<sup>1</sup> ii. 80.

<sup>2</sup> ii. 5, 1. Cf. Keith, Aitareya Āraņ-

yaka, 204.
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Āruņeya.—An epithet of Śvetaketu, indicating his descent from Uddālaka Āruņi and Aruņa Aupaveśi. It is apparently confined to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ and Chāndogya Upaniṣad,² in which Śvetaketu plays a great part.

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    1 x. 3, 4, 1; xi. 2, 7, 12; 5, 4, 18; 6, 2, 1; xii. 2, 1, 9; Brhadāraņyaka
    Upanişad, vi. 2, 1.
    v. 3, 1; vi. 1, 1.
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Ārkṣa.—Patronymic of Śrutarvan and of Āśvamedha.

Ārjīka¹ and Ārjīkīya² (masc.), Ārjīkīyā³ (fem.).—The two masculine forms probably denote the people or land, while the feminine word designates the river of the land. Hillebrandt⁴ locates the country in or near Kaśmir, as Arrian⁵ mentions Arsaces, brother of Abhisares, who presumably took his name from his people, and Abhisāra bordered on Kaśmir. Pischel⁶ accepts Ārjīka as designating a country, which he, however, thinks cannot be identified. But neither Roth¹ nor Zimmer⁶ recognizes the word as a proper name. On the other hand, all authorities agree in regarding Ārjīkīyā as the name of a

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<sup>1</sup> Singular: Rv. viii. 7, 29; ix. 113, 2.
Plural: ix. 65, 23.
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² Rv. viii. 64, 11.

³ Rv. x. 75, 5.

⁴ Vedische Mythologie, 1, 126-137.

⁵ Anabasis, v. 29, 4.

⁶ Vedische Studien, 2, 209, 217.

⁷ St. Petersburg Dictionary.

⁸ Altindisches Leben, 12-14.

river. Roth⁹ does so in one passage¹⁰ only, elsewhere seeing references to Soma vessels; but it seems necessary to treat the word alike in all passages containing it. Zimmer does not locate the river, and Pischel denies the possibility of its identification. Hillebrandt thinks it may have been the Upper Indus, or the Vitastā (the Jhelum), or some other stream. Grassmann follows Yāska¹¹ in identifying it with the the Vipāś (Beäs), but this is rendered improbable by the position of the name in the hymn in praise of rivers (nadīstuti).¹² Brunnhofer¹³ identifies it with the Arghesan, a tributary of the Arghanab.

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9 Op. cit., s.v. susomā.
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13 Iran und Turan, 52. Cf. Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 398; 399.

Ārjuneya.—In the Rigveda¹ this name occurs as the patronymic of Kautsa.

1 j. 112, 23; iv. 26, 1; vii. 19, 2; viii. 1, 11.

Ārtabhāgī-putra is mentioned as a pupil of Śaungī-putra in a Vamśa or Genealogy in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.¹Ārtabhāga is a patronymic of Jaratkārava in the same Upaniṣad.²

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<sup>1</sup> vi. 5, 2 (also in the Mādhyandina version). <sup>2</sup> iii. 2, 1. 13.
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Ārtava.—This expression denotes a portion of the year consisting of more seasons than one. But it does not bear the exact sense of 'half-year,' as suggested by Zimmer.¹ This is shown by the fact that it occurs regularly in the plural, not in the dual. In the Atharvaveda it occurs between seasons and years (hāyana),² but also in the combinations, 'seasons, Ārtavas, months, years';³ 'half-months, months, Ārtavas, seasons';⁴

¹⁰ Rv. x.75, 5.

¹¹ Nirukta, ix. 26.

¹² Rv. x. 75.

¹ Altindisches Leben, 374.

² iii. 10, 9.

³ iii. 10, 10. ⁴ xi. 7, 20. *Cf*. xv. 6, 6; 17, 6.

'seasons, Ārtavas, months, half-months, days and nights, day':5 and in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā 'months, seasons, Ārtavas, the year,'6 or simply with the seasons.7

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5 xvi. 8, 18.
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vii. 2, 6, 1. 3. Kausītaki Upanisad, i. 3, cited in this sense in the St. Petersburg Dictionary, is not so to be understood,

Ārtnī denotes the end of the bow to which the bow-string (iyā) was attached.1 The string was not normally kept fastened to both ends of the bow, but when an arrow was to be shot it was strung taut.2 On the other hand, the legend of the death of Vișnu, told in the later Samhitās3 and Brāhmanas,4 expressly contemplates his leaning on his strung bow, which cleaves his head by the sudden springing apart of the two ends when the bow-string is gnawed through.

3 Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iv. 5, 9.

Arya is the normal designation in the Vedic literature from the Rigveda1 onwards of an Aryan, a member of the three upper classes, Brāhmaṇa, Kṣatriya, or Vaiśya, as the formal division is given in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa.2 The Ārya stands in opposition to the Dasa,3 but also to the Sudra. Sometimes⁴ the expression is restricted to the Vaisya caste.

Whitney's Translation of the Atharvaveda, 948, 1003, quotes his view with approval; but Whitney's version leaves no doubt that he read and understood the text as Ārya, the Āryan, not the Vaisya. For Whitney's view, Av. iv. 20. 4. 8 may be cited; and so Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., takes the passages. In Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 3, 10, 8, Śūdrāryau must mean Śūdra and Vaisya; but the Padapātha takes it as Arya, and so does Zimmer.

⁶ xxii. 28.

⁷ Av. v. 28, 2. 13; x. 6, 18; 7, 5; xi. 3, 17; 6, 17; Taittirīya Samhitā, as the word there is merely adjectival.

¹ Rv. vi. 75, 4; Av. i. 1, 3; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 9, 2; Kāthaka Samhitā, xvii. 11; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvi. 9, etc.

[&]quot; Rv. x. 166, 3. Cf. Av. vi. 42, 1.

⁴ Pañcavimśa Brāhmana, vii. 5, 6; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xiv. 1, 1, 7 et seq.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 297, 298; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 270.

¹ Rv. i. 51, 8; 130, 8; 156, 5, etc.

² iv. 1, 6 (Kāṇva recension).

³ Rv. i. 51, 8. 9; 103, 3; vi. 20, 10; 25, 2. 3, etc. (opposed to Dāsa); Av. iv. 20, 4.8; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iv. 6, 6; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xiv. 30, etc. (opposed to Śūdra).

⁴ Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 205, 215, finds this use-understanding Arya as meant-in Atharvaveda, xix. 32, 8, and 62, 1, as well as in passages where Śudrāryau is found. Lanman, in

the Brāhmaṇa and the Kṣatriya receiving special designations; but this use is not common, and it is often uncertain also whether Arya is not meant. The phrase Śūdrāryau⁵ is especially ambiguous, but appears to have denoted originally the Śūdra and the Āryan, for in the Mahāvrata ceremony the fight between a Śūdra and an Ārya is represented in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa as one between a Brāhmaṇa and a Śūdra, though the Sūtra treats it as a fight between a Vaiśya and a Śūdra.

The word Ārya (fem. Āryā or Ārī) also occurs frequently used as an adjective to describe the Āryan classes (viśaḥ), or name (nāman), or caste (varṇa), or dwellings (dhāman), or again reference is made to the Āryan supremacy (vrata) being extended over the land. Āryan foes (vṛra) are referred to beside Dāsa foes, and there are many references to war of Āryan versus Āryan, as well as to war of Āryan against Dāsa. From this it can be fairly deduced that even by the time of the Rigveda the Āryan communities had advanced far beyond the stage of simple conquest of the aborigines. In the later Saṃhitās and Brāhmaṇas the wars alluded to seem mainly Āryan wars, no doubt in consequence of the fusion of Ārya and Dāsa into one community.

Weber 13 considers that the five peoples known to the Rigveda were the Āryans and the four peoples of the quarters (dis) of the earth, but this is doubtful. Āryan speech ($v\bar{a}c$) 14 is specially referred to in the Aitareya and Śānkhāyana

Āraņyakas.

⁶ See Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 5, 9, 3, with 'Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiii. 3, 7, 8; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xxxiv. 5; Pañcavimśa Brāhmana, v. 5, 17; Taittirīya Brāhmana, i. 2, 6, 7; Lāṭyāyana Sūtra, iv. 2, 5; Śāńkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvii. 6, 2; Anupada Sūtra, vii. 10.
⁶ Rv. i. 77, 3; 96, 31; x. 11, 4;

^{43, 4,} etc. 7 Rv. x. 49, 3.

⁸ Rv. iii. 34, 9. Cf. Varna.

⁹ Rv. ix. 63, 14.

¹⁰ Rv. x. 65, 11. So Agni and Indra are styled Āryan, as supporters of the Āryan people (Rv. vi. 60, 6).

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¹¹ Rv. vi. 33, 3; vii. 83, 1; x. 69, 6.

¹² Rv. i. 102, 5; iii. 32, 14; vi. 22, 10; 25, 2, 3; viii. 2, 4, 27; x, 38, 3; 83, 1; 102, 3, etc.

¹³ Indische Studien, 17, 288. Cf. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. kṛṣṭi, and Pañca Janāsah.

¹⁴ Aitareya Aranyaka, iii. 2, 5; Śānkhāyana Āranyaka, viii. 9. *Gf.* Keith, *Aitareya Āranyaka*, 196, 255; and Vāc.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 207 et seq.; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 214 et seq.

Arya. See Mālya.

Arșți-șeṇa.—Patronymic of Devāpi.1

1 Rv. x. 98, 5, 6, 8; Nirukta, ii. 11; Brhaddevatā, vii. 155.

Ala. appears to mean 'weed' in the Atharvaveda,1 and to form part of three other words,2 denoting, according to Sāyaṇa, grass-creepers (sasya-vallī)—viz., Alasālā, Silañjālā,3 and Nīlāgalasāla. Whitney,4 however, does not think that the words can be given any determinate sense.

- the word as a verb, comparing v.
 - 2 Av. vi. 16, 4.
 - 3 Sāyana reads Salānjālā, and the the Atharvaveda, 466.

¹ Av. vi. 16, 3. But Whitney takes | manuscripts of the Kausika Sūtra (vi. 16), have Silānjālā. But ef. Silācī. ⁴ Translation of the Atharvaveda, 292, 293. Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of

Alambayani-putra is mentioned in a Vamsa or Genealogy of the Kanya recension of the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad (vi. 5, 2) as a pupil of Alambi-putra. In the Madhyandina recension (vi. 4, 32) the relation is reversed, for there he is teacher of Alambi-putra and pupil of Jayanti-putra.

Alambī-putra is a pupil of Jāyantī-putra according to a Vamśa in the Kānva recension of the Brhadāranyaka Upanisad (vi. 5, 2), but of Alambayani-putra according to the Madhyandina (vi. 4, 32).

Aligī is the name of a kind of serpent in the Atharvaveda (v. 13, 7). Cf. Viligī.

A-vasatha ('dwelling').—The precise sense1 of this term appears to be a place for the reception of guests, especially Brāhmanas and others on the occasion of feasts and sacrifices (somewhat like the modern meaning of Dharma-śālā as a resthouse for pilgrims), a use derived from the more general sense of 'abode.'2

1 Av. ix. 6, 5 (a hymn in praise of entertaining Brahmanas); Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 10, 6; iii. 7, 4, 6; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xii. 4, 4, 6 (where Eggeling renders the word as if meaning 'house' merely); Chandogya Upanisad, iv. 1, 1, etc. Details are given in the Sūtras-e.g., Apastamba Śrauta Sūtra, v. 9, 3; Dharma Sūtra, ii. 9, 25, 4.

² E.g., Aitareya Upanişad, iii. 12. Cf. Hillebrandt Vedische Mythologie, 2. 120, n. I.

Avika ('coming from the sheep,' avi) is a term for 'wool,' which occurs first in the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad (ii. 3, 6). Cf. Avi.

Avi-kṣita.—Patronymic of Marutta, the Ayogava.

1 Aitareya Brāhmaņa, viii. 21; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, xiii. 5, 4, 6.

Ā-śarīka appears to denote a disease in a hymn of the Atharvaveda1 celebrating the powers of the Jangida plant. Zimmer² thinks that it merely denotes the pain in the limbs accompanying fever. Whitney3 suggests taking the word as merely an epithet.

1 xix. 34, 10.

953. Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 673.

" Altindisches Leben, 65, 391. 3 Translation of the Atharvaveda,

Ā-śir ('admixture') denotes the mixing, and more especially the milk mixed with the juice, of the Soma before it was offered to the gods. In this sense it is not rare from the Rigveda¹ onwards. Not milk alone was employed for this purpose. The epithet 'having three admixtures' applied to Soma2 is explained by the other epithets, 'mixed with milk' (gavāśir), 'mixed with curds' (dadhy-āśir), and 'mixed with grain' (yavāśir)-all referring to Soma.

1 i. 134, 6; iii. 53, 14; viii. 2, 10. | ² Rv. v. 27, 5; cf. viii. 2, 7. Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 209 11, etc.; Av. ii. 29, 1, etc.; Nirukta, vi. 8; 32. et seq.

Āśī-viṣa, occurring only in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,1 is understood by Roth² as designating a particular kind of snake, and perhaps means 'having poison (visa) in its fangs' (āśī).

1 vi. 1. is a common word in the Epic and ² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. It later.

Āśu, the 'swift,' is frequently used without Aśva to denote the chariot steed from the Rigveda 1 onwards.

1 ii. 16, 3; 31, 2; 38, 3, etc.; Av. ii. | Samhitā, i. 8, 10; Satapatha Brāh-14. 6; iv. 27, 1; xiii. 2, 2; Taittiriya | maṇa, v. 3, 3, 3, etc.

Āśum-ga in the Atharvaveda¹ seems to denote some sort of animal. It is qualified by the word 'young' (śiśuka), and Roth² suggests that it may mean a bird ('swift-flying'), or that the expression denotes 'a foal going to its dam' (āśu-ga). Sāyaṇa, however, reads the accompanying word as śuśuka, which he assumes to denote an animal. Bloomfield³ renders the two words 'a swift (āśuṃga) foal (śiśuka),' thus agreeing with one of Roth's suggestions in sense, though not in the explanation of Aśuṃga.

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    vi. 14, 3.
    St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
    Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 464.
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Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 291.

Ā-śrama ('resting-place') does not occur in any Upanişad which can be regarded as pre-Buddhistic. Its earliest use as denoting the stages of a Hindu's life is found in the Svetāśvatara Upanişad. In one passage2 of the Chandogya Upanişad reference is made only to the Brahmacarin and householder, to whom, as a reward for study, the procreation of children, the practice of Yoga, abstention from injury to living creatures, and sacrifices, freedom from transmigration are promised. In another place3 three states are contemplated, but not as consecutive. The Brahmacārin may either become a householder or become an anchorite, or remain in his teacher's house all his life. Similarly, reference4 is made to the death of the anchorite in the forest, or the sacrifice in the village. In contrast with all three⁵ is the man who stands fast in Brahman (Brahmasamstha). In the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad6 the knower of the Ātman is contrasted with those who (1) study, or (2) sacrifice and give alms, or (3) are anchorites, and in another place7 with those who sacrifice and make benefactions, and those who practice asceticism. This position of superiority to, and distinction from, the Aśramas became later a fourth⁸ Aśrama,

¹ Atyāframin, Śvetāśvatara Upanisad, vi. 21; Maitrāyaņī Upanisad, iv. 3, etc.

² viii. 5.

³ ii. 23, I.

⁴ v. 10.

⁵ ii. 23, I. ⁶ iv. 2, 22. Cf. iii. 5.

⁷ iii. 8, 10.

⁸ Jābāla Upaniṣad, 4. Cf. Mundaka Upaniṣad, ii. 1, 7.

the Gṛhastha, or householder, who was in the second stage, being required to pass not only into the stage of Vānaprastha, but also that of the Sannyāsin (Bhikṣu, Parivrājaka). The first stage, that of the Brahmacārin, was still obligatory, but was no longer allowed to remain a permanent one, as was originally possible.

Cf. Deussen, Philosophy of the Uranishads, 60, 367 et seq.

Ā-śreṣā, Ā-śleṣā. See Nakṣatra.

Āśva-ghna.—This name occurs in one passage of the Rigveda,¹ in a very obscure hymn, where it appears to denote a prince who had made offerings to Indra, and who may, as Ludwig² thinks, have been called Vitaraṇa.

1 x. 61, 21.

² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 165.

Aśvatara Āśvi, or Āśvatarāśvi.—These two expressions are used as patronymics of Budila, denoting, according to Sāyaṇa, that he was son of Aśva, and descendant of Aśvatara.

¹ The first is found in Aitareya Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, iv. 15, 8; Brāhmaṇa, vi. 30; the second in Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 6, 1, 9; x. 6, 1, 1; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 11, 1; 16, 1.

Āśva-tthya.—Patronymic of Ahīnā.1

1 Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 10, 9, 10. Possibly to be read Aśvathya.

Asva-medha is the patronymic of an unnamed prince, who occurs in a Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts') in the Rigveda (viii. 68, 15. 16).

Āśva-vāla.—From this adjective ('made of horse-tail grass'), applied to a strew (prastara) in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (iii. 4, 1, 17; 6, 3, 10), follows the existence of the Aśvavāla grass (Saccharum spontaneum).

Āśva-sūkti is mentioned in Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xix. 4, 2, et seq.) as an author of Sāmans (Soma chants) along with Gausūkti.

Āśvina, or Āśvīna, designates, in the Atharvaveda¹ and two Brāhmaṇas,² the length of journey made in a day by a horseman (aśvin). The exact distance is not defined. In the Atharva it appears to exceed five leagues, being mentioned immediately after a distance of three or five Yojanas; in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa the heavenly world is placed at a distance of a thousand Āśvinas.

1 vi. 131, 3.

2 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 17; Pai- | caviṃśa Brāhmaṇa in Indische Studien, 1, 34.

Āṣādhi Sauśromateya.—According to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,¹ he was ruined because the heads were put on at the Agniciti in a certain manner, and not correctly.

¹ vi. 2, 1, 37. Eggeling has Aṣāḍhi, but as it is a patronymic of Aṣāḍha, the form Āṣāḍhi seems correct.

Āṣṭrā seems in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā (xxxvii. 1) to denote the ploughman's goad.

Aṣṭrī.—In the Rigveda¹ the word seems to denote a fireplace. The evil bird is entreated not to settle there on the hearth.

1 x. 165, 3. Cf. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 347.

Āsaṅga Plāyogi is a king who appears in a Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts') in the Rigveda¹ as a generous patron. Owing, however, to the addition of a curious phallic verse to the hymn, and its early misunderstanding,² a legend was invented that he lost his manhood and became a woman, but by the intercession of Medhyātithi was transformed into a man, much to the delight of his wife, Śaśvatī, whose existence is based on a misunderstanding of the phrase 'every woman' (śaśvatī nārī) in the added verse.³ Another misunderstanding

¹ viii. 1, 32. 33.
2 viii. 1, 34. See Hopkins, Religions of India, 150, n. 1; Brhaddevatā, ii. 83; vi. 41, with Macdonell's notes. Dyādviveda gives the tale at length in Vedic

words taken from the Nighantu, a curious jeu d'esprit. See the extract from the Nītimañjarī given by Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 40, 41.

of the Dānastuti⁴ gives him a son Svanad-ratha, really a mere epithet, and makes him a descendant of Yadu.

4 viii. 1, 31. 32. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 159; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 1, 354.

A-sandi.—This is a generic term for a seat of some sort, occurring frequently in the later Samhitas1 and Brahmanas,2 but not in the Rigveda. In the Atharvaveda³ the settle brought for the Vrātya is described at length. It had two feet, lengthwise and cross-pieces, forward and cross-cords, showing that it was made of wood and also cording. It was also covered with a cushion (Astarana) and a pillow (Upabarhana), had a seat (Asāda) and a support (Upaśraya). Similar seat are described in the Kausītaki Upanisad4 and the Jaimin a Brāhmaņa.5 The seat for the king at the royal consecration is described in very similar terms in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,6 where the height of the feet is placed at a span, and the lengthwise and cross-pieces are each to be a cubit, while the interwoven part (vivayana) is to be of Muñja grass, and the seat of Udumbara In another passage of the Atharvaveda7 Lanman seems to take the seat meant as a 'long reclining chair.' There also a cushion (Upadhāna) and coverlet (Upavāsana) are mentioned. The Satapatha Brāhmana repeatedly describes the Asandi in terms showing that it was an elaborate seat. In one place8 it is said to be made of Khadira wood, perforated (vi-trina), and joined with straps (vardhra-vuta) like that of the Bhāratas. At the Sautrāmanī rite9 (an Indra sacrifice) the seat is of Udumbara wood, is knee-high, and of unlimited width and depth, and is covered with plaited reed-work.

¹ Av. xiv. 2, 65; xv. 3, 2 et seq.; Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 5, 8, 5; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, viii. 56; xix. 16; 86, etc.

² Aitareya Brāhmaņa, viii. 5; 6; 12; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, iii. 3, 4, 26; v. 2, 1, 22; 4, 4, 1, etc.

³ xv. 3, 2 et seq.

⁴ i. 5. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien,

^{1, 397;} Keith, Śānkhāyana Aran-

⁵ ii. 24.

⁶ viii. 5; 6; 12.

⁷ xiv. 2, 65. See his note in Whitney's Translation of the Atharvaveda, 765.

⁸ v. 4, 4, 1.
9 xii. 8, 3, 4 et seq.

imperial seat¹⁰ is to be shoulder-high, of Udumbara wood, and wound all over with cords of Balvaja grass (*Elcusina indica*). Elsewhere¹¹ the seat is a span high, a cubit in width and depth, of Udumbara wood, and covered with reed-grass cords, and daubed with clay.

10 xiv. 1, 3, 8 et seq. 11 vi. 7, 1, 12 et seq. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 155.

Āsandī-vant, 'possessing the throne,' is the title of the royal city of Janamejaya Pārikṣita, in which the horse, for his famous Aśvamedha, was bound. The authorities both cite a Gāthā for the fact, but they differ as to the priest who celebrated the rite. In the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ he is stated to have been Indrota Daivāpa Śaunaka, but in the Aitareya² Tura Kāvaṣeya.

1 xiii. 5, 4, 2. Sūtra, xvi. 9, 1. Pāṇini, viii. 2, 12, 2 viii. 21. Cf. Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta knows the name.

Ā-sāda, 'seat,' occurs in the Atharvaveda¹ as a description of part of the settle (Āsandī) of the Vrātya. It seems best to regard it with Whitney² as the seat proper; Aufrecht,³ Zimmer,⁴ and Roth⁵ render it as the 'cushion for the seat,' but that is sufficiently described by the word Āstaraṇa.

- 1 xv. 3, 8.
 2 Translation of the Atharvaveda,
- 3 Indische Studien, 1, 131.
- 4 Altindisches Leben, 155.
- ⁵ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Āsurāyaṇa is mentioned as a pupil of Traivaṇi in the first two Vaṃśas¹ (lists of teachers) of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad in both recensions, but as a pupil of Āsuri in the third Vaṃśa.²

> 1 ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3. 2 vi. 5, 2. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 434, n.

Āsuri occurs in the first two Vamsas¹ (lists of teachers) of the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad as a pupil of Bhāradvāja and teacher of Aupajandhani, but in the third² as a pupil of Yājnavalkya and teacher of Āsurāyaṇa. He appears as a

ritual authority in the first four books of the Satapatha Brāhmana,3 and as an authority on dogmatic, specially noted for his insistence on truth, in the last be k.4

3 i. 6, 3, 26; ii. 1, 4, 27; 3, 1, 9; | 4, 1, 2; 6, 1, 25. 33; 3, 17; iv. 5, 8, 4 xiv. 1, 1, 33, and notes 1, 2.

a eq., whose suggestion of the identity of this teacher and the founder of the Sāṃkhya system is not, however, acceptable. See Garbe, Sāmkhya Philo-Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 430 sophie, 29, 30.

Asuri-vāsin is a name of Prāśnī-putra in a Vamśa (list of teachers) of the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad (vi. 5, 2, in both recensions).

Ā-secana designates a vessel to hold liquids, such as meat juice (yūṣan)1 or ghee.2 Of its shape and make we know nothing.

1 Rv. i. 162, 13.

² Satapatha Brahmana, ii. 1, 9, 5. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 271.

Ā-staraṇa denotes the coverlet of the settle (Āsandī) of the Vrātya.1 A tiger's skin serves as the coverlet of the king's seat in the royal consecration (Rājasūya).2 In the Kauṣītaki Upanișad3 the word used is Upastaraņa.

1 Av. xv. 3, 7. ² Aitareya Brāhmaņa, viii. 5. 3 i. 5. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben,

Astra-budhna is the name of a man whom Indra is said in the Rigveda¹ to have assisted. It is not clear whether Venya, who is mentioned in the same line, was his friend2 or his enemy,3 whom Indra saved or defeated for him.

² So Grassmann and Griffith in their translations.

3 So Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 167.

A-sthatr.-The warrior in the chariot is once thus designated (as 'standing on the car') in the Rigveda. 1 Normally he is named Rathin or Rathestha.

¹ vi. 47, 26. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 296.

Ā-srāva ('discharge') denotes a disease, thrice referred to in the Atharvaveda,¹ the precise nature of which is uncertain. The Scholiast² in one place interprets it as painful urination (mūtrātisāra), while Lanman³ suggests diabetes. Bloomfield⁴ takes it to be diarrhœa, and Zimmer⁵ argues that as the remedy is called 'wound healer' (arus-srāṇa), the sense is 'the flux from unhealed wounds.' Whitney⁶ renders it 'flux,' and questions Bloomfield's rendering. Ludwigⁿ translates it vaguely by 'sickness' and 'cold.'

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1 i. 2, 4; ii. 3, 2; vi. 44, 2.
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6 Op. cit., 3, 41.

Āhanasyā ('unchaste').—This word in the plural ('lascivious verses') denotes a section (xx. 136) of the Kuntāpa hymns of the Atharvaveda, which are of an obscene character.¹

¹ Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vi. 36; Kauṣītaki Brāhmaņa, xxx. 7. Cf. Bloomfield, Atharvaveda, 99.

 \bar{A} -hava denotes a pail or bucket, especially in conjunction with a well (Avata).¹

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1 Rv. i. 34, 8; vi. 7, 2; x. 101, 5; 112, 6; Nirukta, v. 26.
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Ähneya.—Patronymic of Śauca (Taittirīya Āraņyaka, ii. 12).

I.

Ikṣu, the generic name for the sugar-cane, is first found in the Atharvaveda¹ and the later Saṃhitās.² Whether it grew wild, or was cultivated, does not appear from the references.

² On Av. i. 2, 4. Cf. on ii. 3, 2.

³ In Whitney's Translation of the Atharvaveda, 3.

⁴ American Journal of Philology, 7, 467; Journal of the American Oriental Society,

^{13,} exiii; Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 233, 234.

⁵ Altindisches Leben, 392.

⁷ Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 507, 509.

¹ i. 34, 5.
2 Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 7, 9; iv. 2,
g (ikṣu-kāṇḍa). In Vājasaneyi Samhitā,
xxv. 1; Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 3, 16, 1;

Kāthaka Asvamedha, iii. 8, 'eyelash' is meant. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 72; Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Ikṣvāku.—In the Rigveda this name occurs but once,1 and in a doubtful context. It is clear, however, that it denotes a prince; later interpretations make Asamāti, whose name is read into the hymn, an Ikṣvāku prince.2 In the Atharvaveda3 also the name is found in only one passage, where it is uncertain whether a descendant of Ikṣvāku, or Ikṣvāku himself, is referred to; in either case he seems to be regarded as an ancient hero. In the Pañcavimsa Brāhmana4 mention is made of Tryaruņa Traidhātva Aiksvāka, who is identical with the Tryaruņa Traivṛṣṇa of the Bṛhaddevatā,5 and with Tryaruṇa Trasadasyu in the Rigveda.6 The connection of Trasadasyu with the Iksvākus is confirmed by the fact that Purukutsa was an Aikṣvāka, according to the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa.7 Thus the Ikṣvāku line was originally a line of princes of the Pūrus. Zimmer⁸ places them on the upper Indus, but they may well have been somewhat further east.9 Later Iksvāku is connected with Ayodhyā.

1 x. 60, 4.

3 xiv. 39, 9. Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 680; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 961.

4 xiii. 3, 12.

5 v. 14 et seq.

6 v. 27, 3. Cf. Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 68-75; Macdonell, Brhaddevatā, 2, 170; Oldenberg, Vedic Hymns, 366 et seq.; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 133, 138; 4, 324.

7 xiii. 5, 4, 5.

8 Altindisches Leben, 104, 130.

9 Cf. Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 218; Geldner, ibid., 3, 152.

1. Ita.—This word occurs twice in the Atharvaveda. the first passage1 it seems to denote a bulrush of the sort that dies in a year; in the second2 it refers to the reed work of the house.

Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 464. 2 ix. 3, 18. Cf. Pischel, Zeitschrift

1 vi. 14, 3. Cf. iv. 19, 1; Bloomfield, | der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 35, 718.

2. Ița appears as a Rși and a protégé of Indra in one hymn of the Rigveda.1 Roth,2 however, thinks that the word is really part of a verb (it) meaning 'to err, wander' (cp. at), and

² Cf. Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 167; Sātyāyanaka in Max Müller, Rigveda, 4, c-cvii, 167; Journal of the American Oriental Society, 18, 42; Brhaddevatā, vii. 85 et seq., with Macdonell's notes.

¹ x. 171, 1.

² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

that the name is a mere misunderstanding. It is already so regarded in the Anukramani, but not apparently in the Brhaddevatā.3

3 viii. 73. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 133.

Itant Kāvya is the name of a sage, contemporary with Kesin Dārbhya, in the Kausitaki Brāhmana.1 He is also mentioned as Idhant in the Pañcavimśa Brāhmana.2

1 vii. 4. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 293; 2, 308. 2 xiv. 9, 16.

Itihāsa, as a kind of literature, is repeatedly mentioned along with Purana in the later texts of the Vedic period. The earliest reference to both occurs in the late fifteenth book of the Atharvaveda.1 Itihāsa then appears in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa,2 the Jaiminīya,3 Bṛhadāraṇyaka,4 and Chāndogya Upanisads.5 In the latter it is expressly declared with Purāṇa to make up the fifth Veda, while the Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra6 makes the Itihāsa a Veda and the Purāna a Veda. The Itihāsa-veda and the Purāṇa-veda appear also in the Gopatha Brāhmana,7 while the Śatapatha8 identifies the Itihāsa as well as the Purāna with the Veda. In one passage Anvākhyāna and Itihasa are distinguished9 as different classes of works, but the exact point of distinction is obscure; probably the former was supplementary. The Taittiriya Āranyaka 10 mentions Itihāsas and Purānas in the plural.

There is nothing to show in the older literature what distinction there was, if any, between Itihasa and Purana; and the late literature,11 which has been elaborately examined by Sieg,12 yields no consistent result. Geldner 13 has conjectured that there existed a single work, the Itihāsa-purāṇa, a collection

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1 xv. 6, 4 ct scq.
  <sup>2</sup> xiii. 4, 3, 12. 13, and as com-
pounded in xi. 5, 6, 8; 7, 9.
  <sup>3</sup> i. 53.
  4 ii. 4, 10; iv. 1, 2; v. 11.
  5 iii. 4, 1. 2; vii. 1, 2. 4; 2, 1; 7, 1.
  6 xvi. 2, 21. 27.
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⁷ i. 10.

⁸ xiii. 4, 3, 12. 13. 9 xi. 1, 6, 9. Cf. p. 24.

¹¹ See Sayana's Introduction to the Rigveda, p. 12 (ed. Max Müller), and his commentary on Satapatha Brāhmana, xi. 5, 6, 8; Samkara on Brhadāraņyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 4, 10.

¹² Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 31 et

¹³ Vedische Studien, 1, 290. Cf. Sieg. op. cit., 33.

of the old legends of all sorts, heroic, cosmogonic, genealogical; but though a work called Itihāsa, and another called Purāṇa, were probably known to Patañjali, ¹⁴ the inaccuracy of Geldner's view is proved by the fact that Yāska shows no sign of having known any such work. To him the Itihāsa may be a part of the Mantra literature itself, ¹⁵ Aitihāsikas being merely people who interpret the Rigveda by seeing in it legends where others see myths. ¹⁶ The fact, however, that the use of the compound form is rare, and that Yāska regularly has Itihāsa, ¹⁷ not Itihāsa-purāṇa, is against the theory of there ever having been one work.

The relation of Itihāsa to Ākhyāna is also uncertain. Sieg 18 considers that the words Itihāsa and Purāņa referred to the great body of mythology, legendary history, and cosmogonic legend available to the Vedic poets, and roughly classed as a fifth Veda, though not definitely and finally fixed. Thus, Anvākhyānas, Anuvyākhyānas, and Vyākhyānas could arise, and separate Akhyānas could still exist outside the cycle, while an Ākhyāna could also be a part of the Itihāsa-purāṇa. He also suggests that the word Akhyana has special reference to the form of the narrative. Oldenberg,19 following Windisch,20 and followed by Geldner,21 Sieg, and others, has found in the Ākhyāna form a mixture of prose and verse, alternating as the narrative was concerned with the mere accessory parts of the tale, or with the chief points, at which the poetic form was naturally produced to correspond with the stress of the emotion. This theory has been severely criticized by Hertel²² and von Schroeder.23 These scholars, in accordance with older suggestions of Max Müller²⁴ and Lévi,²⁵ see in the

¹⁴ Vārttika on Pāņini, iv. 2, 60, and Mahābhāṣya (ed. Kielhorn), 2, 284.

¹⁵ Nirukta, iv. 6.

¹⁶ Ibid., ii. 16; xii. 1.

¹⁷ Ibid., ii. 10; 24; iv. 6; x. 26; xii. 10.

¹⁸ Op. cit., 31 et seq.

¹⁰ Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 37, 54 et seq.; 39, 52 et seq. Gf. also Göttingische Gelehrte Anzeigen, 1908, 67 et seq.

²⁰ Verhandlungen der dreiunddreissigsten Versammlung deutscher Philologen und Schulmänner in Gera (1879), 15 et seq.

²¹ Vedische Studien, 1, 284; 2, 1 et seq.
22 Vienna Oriental Journal, 18, 59 et

seq.; 23, 273 et seq. Cf. Winternitz, ibid., 23, 102 et seq.

²³ Mysterium und Mimus im Rigveda, 3 et seq.

²⁴ Sacred Books of the East, 32, 183.

²⁵ Le Théâtre indien, 303, 307.

so-called Ākhyāna hymns of the Rigveda, in which Oldenberg finds actual specimens of the supposed literary genus, though, the prose has been lost, actual remains of ritual dramas. Elsewhere 26 it has been suggested that the hymns in question are merely literary dialogues.

26 Keith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1909, 200 et seq.

Id-, Ida-, Idu- Vatsara. See Samvatsara.

Indra-gopa ('protected by Indra'), masc., is a designation of the cochineal insect in the Bṛhadāranyaka Upaniṣad (ii. 3, 6).

Indra-dyumna Bhāllaveya Vaiyāghra-padya is mentioned as a teacher who with others was unable to agree as to the nature of Agni Vaiśvānara, and who was instructed by Aśvapati Kaikeya.¹ As Bhāllaveya he is cited several times in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa² on ritual points.

¹ Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, x. 6, 1, 1 2 i. 6, 1, 19; xiii. 5, 3, 4. Cf. ii. 1, 1 et seq.; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 11, 4, 6. 1 et seq.

Indra-bhū Kāśyapa is mentioned as a pupil of Mitrabhū Kāśyapa in the Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa.¹

1 Indische Studien, 4, 374.

1. Indrota is twice mentioned in the Rigveda¹ in a Dānastuti ('Praise of Liberality') as a giver of gifts. In the second passage he has the epithet Ātiţhigva, which shows conclusively that he was a son of Atithigva, as Ludwig² holds, and not of Rkṣa, as Roth³ states.

² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 163.

St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

2. Indrota Paivāpa Śaunaka is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ as the priest who officiated at the horse

1 xiii. 5, 3, 5; 4, 1; Sānkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xvi. 7, 7; 8, 27.

sacrifice of Janamejaya, although this honour is attributed in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa² to Tura Kāvaṣeya. He also appears in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa³ as a pupil of Śruta, and is mentioned in the Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa.⁴ He cannot be connected in any way with Devāpi, who occurs in the Rigveda.⁵

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2 viii. 21.
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5 x. 98. Cf. Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 240.

1. Ibha is a word of somewhat doubtful sense and interpretation. It is found only in the Samhitās,¹ and especially in the Rigveda.² According to Roth³ and Ludwig⁴ the sense is 'retainer,' and Zimmer⁵ thinks that it includes not only dependants and servants, but also the royal family and the youthful cadets of the chief families. In the opinion of Pischel and Geldner⁶ it denotes 'elephant.' This view is supported by the authority of the commentators Sāyaṇa⁻ and Mahīdhara;⁵ the Nirukta,⁰ too, gives 'elephant' as one of the senses of the word. Megasthenes¹o and Nearchos¹¹ tell us that elephants were a royal prerogative, and the derivative word Ibhya may thus be naturally explained as denoting merely 'rich' (lit., 'possessor of elephants').¹²

2. Ibha in one passage of the Rigveda¹ appears certainly to be intended as an abbreviation of the proper name Smadibha.

³ iii. 40, I.

⁴ Indische Studien, 4, 384, 385.

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 2, 14, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xiii. 9.

² i. S₄, 17; iv. 4, 1; ix. 57, 3, and perhaps vi. 20, 8.

³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

⁴ Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 246, 247.

⁵ Altindisches Leben, 167.

⁶ Vedische Studien, I, xv, xvi.

⁷ On Taittiriya Samhita, loc. cit.

⁸ On Vājasaneyi Samhitā, loc. cit.

⁹ vi. 12. It gives also the sense 'retainer,' and in Asoka's Edicts, No. 5, Bühler, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 37, 279, finds a Vaisya denoted by its Päli form.

¹⁰ Apud Strabo, 704.

¹¹ Ibid., 705.

¹² But it may equally well be explained as 'rich' from the other sense of the primary word: 'possessor of (many) retainers.'

¹ vi. 20, 8. Cf. Pischel and Geldner, Vedische Studien, 1, xvi; Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 380. Zimmer, Allin-

disches Leben, 167, treats it as 'retinue,' as does Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 246, 247.

Ibhya occurs once in the Rigveda¹ in the plural, when a king is said to devour his Ibhyas as the fire the forest; and twice in the Chandogya Upanisad,2 in one passage as the first member of a compound, and in the other as either a proper name or an adjective. Roth,3 Ludwig,4 and Zimmer 5 interpret the word as 'retainers' in the Rigveda, but in the Chandogya Upanisad Roth thinks it means 'rich.' Pischel and Geldner accept the sense in all passages. Böhtlingk in his translation of the Chandogya treats the word as simply a proper name, 'Ibhya's village' (ibhya-grāma) and 'Ibhya.'

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1 i. 65, 4.
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6 Vedische Studien, I, xvi. Cf. Sayana on Rigveda, loc. cit., dhaninah, and Samkara on Chandogya Upanisad, loc. cit., iśvaro hastyāroho vā; Weber, Indische Studien, 1. 476. Cf. also Little, Grammatical Index, 35.

Irina (neut.) occurs not rarely in the later Samhitas1 and Brāhmaṇas² in the sense of 'a cleft in the ground,' usually natural (sva-kṛta). The same meaning is also, as Pischel3 shows, to be ascribed to it in three passages of the Rigveda,4 in one5 of which the hole is referred to as 'made by water' (apā kṛtam). In another passage of the Rigveda⁶ the word refers to the place on which the dice are thrown. Pischel7 concludes that the dicing-board must have been so called because it contained holes into which the dice had to be thrown if possible. Lüders,8 however, points out that this assumption is not necessary; the dice (Akşa) were merely thrown on a space dug out, which could be called Irina, as being a hole in the ground, though not a natural one. This view is supported by the commentary of Sāyaṇa,9 as well as by Durga in his note on the Nirukta.10

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1 Av. iv. 15, 12; Taittirīya Samhitā,
ii. 5, 1, 3; iii. 4, 8, 5; v. 2, 4, 3;
Kāthaka Samhitā, ix. 16.
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² i. 10, 1. 2.

³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

⁴ Translation of the Rigveda, 3,

⁵ Altindisches Leben, 168.

² Satapatha Brāhmana, v. 2, 3, 2; vii. 2, 1, 8.

³ Vedische Studien, 2, 222-225.

⁴ i. 186, 9; viii. 4, 3; 87, 1. 4.

⁵ viii. 4, 3.

⁶ x. 34, I. 9.

⁷ Op. cit., 2, 225. 8 Das Würfelspiel im alten Indien, 14.

on Rv., loc. cit. (ā-sphāra). 10 ix. 8 (asphuraka-sthana).

Ișa Śyāvāśvi is mentioned in a Vaṃśa ('list of teachers') of the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iv. 16, 1) as a pupil of Agastya.

Iṣīkā, 'a stalk of reed grass,' occurs frequently from the Atharvaveda¹ onwards, often as an emblem of fragility. In the Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka² it seems to denote the pin fixed in the bar of a pen to keep cattle in (argaleṣīke, 'bolt and pin'). A basket (śūrpa) of Iṣīkā is referred to in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.³

1 Av. vii. 56, 4; xii. 2, 54; Šatapatha Brāhmaņa, iv. 3, 4, 16, etc.; Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, i. 9; ii. 134; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 24, 3; Kāṭhaka Upaniṣad, ii. 6, 17, etc.; Nirukta, ix. 8.

² ii. 16 (v. l. °ike).

³ i. 1, 4, 19.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 71;

Oertel, Journal of the American Oriental

Society, 19, 122, n. 3.

Işu is the usual name for 'arrow' from the Rigveda1 onwards. Other names are Śarya, Śārī, and Bāņa. In the hymn of the Rigveda,2 which gives a catalogue of armour, two kinds of arrows are distinctly referred to: the one is poisoned (ālāktā), and has a head of horn (ruru-śīrṣṇī); the other is copper-, bronze-, or iron-headed (ayo-mukham). Poisoned (digdha) arrows are also referred to in the Atharvaveda.3 The arrows were feathered.4 The parts of an arrow are enumerated in the Atharvaveda 5 as the shaft (śalya), the feather-socket (parna-dhi), the point (śrnga), the neck of the point in which the shaft is fixed (kulmala), and the Apaskambha and Apastha, which are of more doubtful significance. In the Aitareya Brāhmana6 the parts of an arrow are given as the point (anīka), the śalya, tejana, and the feathers (parnāni), where śalya and teiana must apparently mean the upper and lower parts of the shaft, since it is reasonable to suppose that the arrow is described as a whole consecutively. So in the Atharvaveda? the arrow of Kāma is described as having feathers, a shaft

¹ ii. 24, 8; viii. 7, 4, etc.; Av. i. 13, 4 Rv. x. 18, 14; vi. 75, 11; Av. 4, etc.; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xvi. 3, v. 25, 1. etc.; Nīrukta, ix. 18, 2 vi. 75, 15. 5 iv. 6, 7; v. 18, 8, 15; 31, 4. 5 iv. 6. 6 i. 25. 7 Av. iii. 25, 2.

(śalya), and a firm fastening (kulmala).8 The arrow was shot from the ear, and so is described in the Rigveda⁹ as 'having the ear for its place of birth.'

As a measure of length, the Işu was five spans, say three feet. 10 A regular profession of arrow-making existed (işu-kṛt, 11 işu-kāra). 12

- 8 See also Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 8, 1. 2; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxv. 1.
- ⁹ Rv. vi. 75, 3; ii. 24, 8 (karna-yoni).
 - Satapatha Brāhmaņa, vi. 5, 2, 10.
 Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvi. 46. Cf.
- Rv. i. 184, 3.

12 Ibid., xxx. 7; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 3, 1.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 300; Weber, Indische Studien, 18, 29, 286; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 275 et seq.; 25, 337.

Işu Tri-kāṇḍā is the name given in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa¹ to some constellation, perhaps Orion's girdle. It is mentioned with Mṛga, Mṛgavyādha, and Rohiṇī.

1 iii. 33. Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 205, n.

Işu-dhi ('arrow-holder') is the name of the quiver which was carried by every bowman. The word is common from the Rigveda¹ onwards. No trace is to be found in Vedic literature of the later practice of carrying two quivers.² According to Pischel,³ the curious expression *işu-kṛt* in the Rigveda⁴ means quiver.

¹ i. 33, 3; vi. 75, 5; x. 95, 3; Av. ii. 33, 2; iv. 10, 6, etc.; Nirukta, ix. 13.

- ² Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 274. Each quiver held from ten to twenty arrows.
- ³ Vedische Studien, 1, 17. But see Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 182.
- 4 i. 184, 3.

 Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben,
 300.

Ī.

Īṣā denotes the 'pole of a chariot.' Normally the chariot had one pole (ekeṣaḥ),¹ but sometimes two poles are referred to.² The word is often³ compounded with Yuga, 'yoke,' into which it was fastened (see Kha), and tied with ropes.⁴ Exactly how it was attached to the chariot we do not know.⁵ See also Ratha.

1 Rv. x. 135, 3; iii. 53, 17; viii. 5,

3 Av., loc. cit., etc.

4 Rv. x. 60, S. Cf. iii. 6, 6.

^{29;} Av. viii, 8, 23.

² Cf. Av. ii. 8, 4; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, i. 1, 2, 12 (*īṣā-yngāni*, but in iii. 9, 4, 3 dual); Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, vii. 9, 14, etc.

⁵ Vāṇi in Rv. i. 119, 5 is taken by Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 249, to refer to the front part of the chariot, but it seems simply to be 'voice.'

U.

Uksan. See Go.

Ukṣaṇyāyana is mentioned in a Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts') in the Rigveda¹ along with Harayāṇa and Suṣāman. Ludwig² thinks that all three are identical. Roth³ finds a reference to Ukṣan himself in the verb ukṣaṇyati⁴ and in the adjective ukṣaṇyu.⁵

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1 viii. 25, 22.
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² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 162, 276.

Ukṣṇo-randhra Kāvya is mentioned as a seer in the Pañca-viṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xiii. 9, 19).1

1 Cf. Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32. 397.

Ukhā is the regular word for a 'cooking pot,' usually mentioned in connexion with sacrifice, from the Rigveda onwards. It was made of clay (mṛṇ-mayī). See also Sthālī.

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1 i. 162, 13, 15; iii. 53, 22; Av. xii. 3, 23; Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 1, 6, 3, etc.
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Ugra in one passage of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad¹ seems to have a technical force, denoting 'man in authority,' or according to Max Müller's rendering, 'policeman.' Roth² compares a passage in the Rigveda,³ where, however, the word has simply the general sense of 'mighty man.' Böhtlingk,⁴ in his rendering of the Upaniṣad, treats the word as merely adjectival.

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1 iv. 3, 37. 38.
2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
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Ugra-deva is mentioned with Turvaśa and Yadu in the Rigveda¹ apparently as a powerful protector. The name occurs also in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa² and the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka,³ where he is styled Rājani and called a leper (kilāsa).

veda, 3, 147; Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., who suggests that in the Rv. passage the word should be taken adjectivally.

³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

⁴ Rv. viii. 26, 9.

³ vii. 38, 6. ⁴ P. 66 (with pratyenasale).

¹ i. 36, 18 (Ugrādeva). 2 xiv. 3, 17; xxiii. 16, 11.

³ v. 4, 12.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rig- taken adjectivally.

Ugra-sena is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (xiii. 5, 4, 3), and in a Gāthā there cited as being, with Bhīmasena and Śrutasena, a Pārikṣitīya and a brother of Janamejaya. The brothers were cleansed by the horse sacrifice from sin.

Uccaiḥ-śravas Kaupayeya appears in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 29, 1-3) as a king of the Kurus and as maternal uncle of Keśin. His connexion with the Kurus is borne out by the fact that Upamaśravas was son of Kuruśravaṇa, the names being strikingly similar.

Uc-chīrṣaka.—This word, occurring in the description of the couch (paryaṅka) in the Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad¹ (i. 5), apparently denotes a cushion for the head. See also Āsandī.

1 Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 403; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 155.

Uttara Kuru.—The Uttara Kurus, who play a mythical part in the Epic and later literature, are still a historical people in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,¹ where they are located beyond the Himālaya (pareṇa Himavantam). In another passage,² however, the country of the Uttara Kurus is stated by Vāsiṣṭha Sātyahavya to be a land of the gods (deva-kṣetra), but Jānamtapi Atyarāti was anxious to conquer it, so that it is still not wholly mythical. It is reasonable to accept Zimmer's view that the northern Kurus were settled in Kaśmīr, especially as Kurukṣetra is the region where tribes advancing from Kaśmīr might naturally be found. Cf. Udīcyas.

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1 viii. 14.
2 viii. 23.
Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 165;
Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 101, 102;
Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 75, n.
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Uttara Madra is the name of a tribe mentioned with the Uttara Kurus in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa¹ as living beyond the Himālaya. Zimmer² points out that in the Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa³ Kāmboja Aupamanyava is a pupil of Madragāra, and thence

¹ viii. 14. 2 Altindisches Leben, 102. 3 Indische Studien, 4, 371.

infers that Kambojas and Madras were not far distant in space. This conclusion is perfectly reasonable in view of the probable position of the Kāmbojas.⁴

⁴ See map in Pargiter, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1908, p. 332. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 165.

Ut-tāna Āngirasa is mentioned in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa¹ as a quasi-mythical person who received all good things, and yet was not harmed, as he was really a form of the earth, according to Sāyaṇa's² explanation. His name occurs also in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā,³ the Pancaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa,⁴ and the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka.⁵

1 ii. 3, 2, 5. Cf. ii. 2, 5, 3.

2 On Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 3,

2, 5.

Udag-ayana. See Sūrya.

Ud-aṅka Śaulbāyana.—His views on Brahman, which he identified with the vital airs (prāṇa), are mentioned in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (iv. 1, 3). He would thus have been a contemporary of Janaka of Videha. He is also mentioned in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā (vii. 5, 4, 2) as holding that the Daśarātra ceremony was the prosperity or best part of the Sattra ('sacrificial session').

Ud-añcana.—This word, occurring only metaphorically in the Rigveda, means a 'pail' or 'bucket' in the Brāhmaṇas.²

1 v. 44, 13 (dhiyām udancanaḥ, 'a very patha Brāhmaṇa, vii. 32; Śatawell of prayers').

Udamaya Ātreya is mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaņa (viii. 22) as Purohita, or domestic priest, of Anga Vairocana.

Udara Śāṇḍilya is mentioned as a teacher in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad,¹ and as a pupil of Atidhanvan Śaunaka in the Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa.²

1 i. 9. 3. 2 Indische Studien, 4, 384.

Udala, a Vaiśvāmitra, is mentioned in the Paūcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xiv. 11, 33) as the seer of a Sāman.

Ud-āja is the word used in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā¹ to denote the share of the booty of war taken by the king after a victory (saṃgrāmaṃ jitvā). This interpretation, which is that of Delbrück,² is clearly correct, as against the older version, 'march out,' given by von Schroeder³ and accepted by Böhtlingk.⁴ The Udāja thus corresponds precisely with the Homeric $\gamma \acute{e}\rho a\varsigma$. This sense also suits Nirāja, the variant of both the Kāṭhaka⁵ and the Kapiṣṭhala⁶ Saṃhitās.

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1 i. 10, 16; iv. 3, 1.
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Udāna is usually the fifth of the vital breaths (Prāṇa) when five are enumerated.¹ Sometimes² it appears as the second, coming after Prāṇa, and followed by Vyāna or Samāna. Again,³ it is found simply opposed to Prāṇa, or it simply follows Prāṇa and Apāna.⁴ In the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa⁵ it is treated as the breath that consumes food, a notion traceable in the later Upaniṣads,6 while it is also regarded as the wind that rises up by the throat,² and leads the spirit.forth at death.8

Ud-īcyas.—The Brāhmaṇas of the northern parts are referred to in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ as engaging, with Svaidāyana Śaunaka as their spokesman, in a dispute with the Kurupañcāla Brāhmaṇa Uddālaka Āruṇi, and as vanquishing him. Their relation to the Kurupañcālas appears also from the fact that in

² Festgruss an Böhtlingk, 25.

³ Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, 1, xv.

⁴ Dictionary, s.v.

⁵ xxviii. 3.

⁶ xliv. 3.

¹ E.g., Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 12, 9; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, v. 4; 10; Śatapatha Brāhmana, ix. 2, 2, 5; xi. 8, 3, 6 (in the order Prāna, Vyāna, Apāna, Udāna, Samāna); Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, i. 5, 3; iii. 4, 1 (Samāna is omitted); iii. 9, 26; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iii. 13, 5; v. 23, 1. 2; Aitareya Āranyaka, ii. 3, 3, etc.

² Vājasaneyi Samhitā, i. 20; vii. 27; Satapatha Brāhmana, ix. 4, 2, 10, etc.

⁽with Vyāna); Aitareya Brāhmaņa, i. 7, 2 (with Samāna).

³ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, vi. 20; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, iv. 1, 2, 2; ix. 2, 4, 5, etc.

Sānkhāyana Āraņyaka, viii.8; xi. 1.

⁵ xi. 2, 4, 5.

Maitrāyaņī Upaniṣad, ii. 6.
 Amrtabindu Upaniṣad, 34.

⁸ Praśna Upanisad, iii. 7. Cf. Deussen, Philosophy of the Upanisads, 280.

¹ xi. 4, 1, 1. Cf. Gopatha Brāhmaņa, i. 3, 6.

the same Brāhmaṇa² reference is made to the speech of the north being similar to that of the Kurupañcālas. The speech of the Northerners was also celebrated for purity; hence Brāhmaṇas used to go to the north for purposes of study, according to the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa,³ while in the Buddhist texts the school of Takṣaśilā (in Gandhāra) is famous as a resort of students.⁴ Possibly, too, Sanskrit was specially developed in Kaśmīr, as suggested by Franke.⁵ See also Kuru.

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<sup>2</sup> iii. 2, 3, 15. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 191; Lévi, La Doctrine du Sacrifice, 35.

<sup>3</sup> vii. 6. Cf. Weber, op. cit., 1, 153; 203.

<sup>5</sup> Cf. Pāli und Sanskrit (1902), 88, 89.
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Udumbara.—This name of the Ficus glomerata does not occur in the Rigveda, but is often found from the Atharvaveda¹ onwards. For ritual purposes of all kinds its wood was constantly used. The sacrificial post $(y\bar{u}pa)^2$ and the sacrificial ladle³ were made of it, and amulets of Udumbara are mentioned.⁴ Its wood, like that of other kinds of figtree—Aśvattha, Nyagrodha, and Plakṣa—was considered suitable for employment at the sacrifice.⁵ The sweetness of its fruit is referred to in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,⁶ where it is put on the same level as Madhu. It is there also spoken of as ripening three times a year.⁵ A forest of Udumbara trees is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.⁵

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1 xix. 31, 1; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 1, 1, 6, etc.; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 1, 33; vii. 4, 1, 38, etc.
2 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 1, 1, 6.
3 Ibid., v. 4, 7, 3.
4 Atharvaveda, xix. 31, 1.
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Uddālaka Āruņi.—Uddālaka, son of Aruņa, is one of the most prominent teachers of the Vedic period. He was a Brāhmaņa of the Kurupañcālas, according to the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa.¹ This statement is confirmed by the fact that he was teacher of Proti Kausurubindi of Kauśāmbī,² and that his son

¹ xi. 4, 1, 2. Cf. Gopatha Brāhmaņa, i. 3, 6. 2 xii. 2, 2, 13.

Śvetaketu is found disputing among the Pañcālas.3 He was a pupil of Aruna, his father,4 as well as of Patañcala Kāpya,5 of Madra, while he was the teacher of the famous Yājñavalkya6 Vājasaneya and of Kauṣītaki,7 although the former is represented elsewhere8 as having silenced him. He overcame in argument Prācīnayogya Śauceya,9 and apparently also Bhadrasena Ājātasatrava,10 though the text here seems to read the name as Āraņi. He was a Gautama, 11 and is often alluded to as such. As an authority on questions of ritual and philosophy, he is repeatedly referred to by his patronymic name Āruṇi in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa,12 the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad,13 the Chāndogya Upaniṣad,14 and occasionally in the Aitareya,15 the Kauṣītaki,16 and the Ṣaḍviṃśa17 Brāhmaṇas, as well as the Kauşītaki Upaniṣad. In the Maitrāyanī Samhitā he is not mentioned, according to Geldner,19 but only his father Aruna; his name does not occur, according to Weber,20 in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, but in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā21 he is, as Āruņi, known as a contemporary of Divodāsa Bhaimaseni, and in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa 22 he is mentioned as serving Vāsistha Caikitāneya. In the Taittirīya tradition he seldom appears. There is an allusion in the Taittirīya Samhitā 23 to Kusurubinda Auddālaki, and according to the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa,²⁴ Naciketas was a son of Vājaśravasa Gautama, who

³ Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 1, 1; | Chāndogya Upanisad, v. 3, 1.

4 Brhadāranyaka Upanisad, vi. 4, 33 (in both recensions).

5 Ibid., iii. 7, 1.

6 Ibid., vi. 3, 15; 4, 33.

7 Śankhāyana Āranyaka, xv.

⁸ Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iii. 7, 31.

9 Satapatha Brahmana, xi. 5, 3, 1 et seq. 10 v. 5, 5, 14. Eggeling, Sacred Books

of the East, 41, 141, has Āraņi. There is a chronological difficulty in taking Āruņi as meant, since Ājātasatrava must presumably have been a descendant of Ajātasatru, a contemporary of Janaka (see Kausītaki Upanisad, iv. 1), who again was a patron of Yājñavalkya, a pupil of Aruni. But this difficulty is

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11 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xi. 5, 3, 2;
Kausītaki Upanisad, i. 1.
   <sup>12</sup> i. 1, 2, 11; ii. 2, 1, 34; iii. 3, 4, 19;
iv. 4, 8, 9; xi. 2, 6, 12.
   13 iii. 5, I.
   14 iii. 11, 4; v. 11, 2; 17, 1; vi:
8, r.
   15 viii. 7.
  16 xxvi. 4.
   17 i. 6.
  18 i. I et seq.
  19 Vedische Studien, 3, 146.
  20 Indian Literature, 69. But cf. xxiii.
1, 5.
  <sup>21</sup> vii. 8. Cf. viii. 6.
  <sup>22</sup> i. 42, I.
  <sup>23</sup> vii. 2, 2, 1 (a late passage).
  24 iii. 11, 8, 1 et seq.
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is made out to be Uddālaka by Sāyaņa.25 But the episode of Naciketas, being somewhat unreal, cannot be regarded as of historical value in proving relationship. Aruna is known to the Taittirīya Samhitā. A real son of Uddālaka was the famous śvetaketu, who is expressly reported by Āpastamba²⁶ to have been in his time an Avara or later authority, a statement of importance for the date of Āruņi.

25 On Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, loc. cit. Cf. Kāthaka Upanisad, i. 11.

26 See Bühler, Sacred Books of the East, 2, xxxviii; Keith, Aitareya Āranyaka, 39.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 170, n.; 2, 201, 202; Oldenberg, Buddha, 396, n.; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, xl., xli.

Uddālakāyana is mentioned as a pupil of Jābālāyana in the second Vamśa (list of teachers) contained in the Kāṇva recension of the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad (iv. 6, 2).

Udra is the name of an animal occurring only in the list of sacrificial victims at the Aśvamedha given in the Samhitās of the Yajurveda. According to Mahidhara it was a crab; but as the commentary on the Taittirīya Samhitā3 calls it a watercat, there can be no doubt that it was an otter.

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 20, 1; Maitrāyanî Samhitā, iii. 14, 18; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 37.

² On Vājasaneyi Samhitā, loc. cit.

3 Loc. cit.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 95, 96; Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 247. Udrin occurs in the Baudhayana Śrauta Sūtra, ii. 5.

Uddhi¹ denotes some part of a chariot, probably the seat,² but, according to Roth,3 the frame resting on the axle.

1 Av. viii. 8, 22; Śatapatha Brāhmana, xii. 2, 2, 2; Aitareya Āranyaka, ii. 3, 8.

² So Whitney's Translation of the

Atharvaveda, 506; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 149. 3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Upa-ketu is the name of a man mentioned in the Kāthaka Samhitā (xiii. 1).

Upa-kosala Kāmalāyana is mentioned as a teacher and a Pupil of Satyakāma Jābāla in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (iv. 10, 1; 14, 1).

Upa-kvasa is the name in the Atharvaveda (vi. 50, 2) of a noxious insect injurious to seed. Sāyaṇa, however, reads the word as a plural adjective $(a-pakvasa\hbar=a-dagdh\bar{a}\hbar)$, but the Paippalāda recension supports the form $upakvasa\hbar$.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 237; | 486; Whitney's Translation of the Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, | Atharvaveda, 318.

Upa-gu Sauśravasa is mentioned in the Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa (xiv. 6, 8) as Purohita of Kutsa Aurava, by whom he was murdered because of his paying homage to Indra.

Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 3, 268; Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 57.

Upa-cit occurs in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā¹ as the name of a disease, which Roth² renders as 'swelling,' and which Bloomfield³ identifies with Apacit.

1 xii. 97.

² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

| ** Proceedings of the American Oriental Society, October, 1887, xviii.

Upa-jihvikā, Upa-jīkā, Upa-dīkā are all forms of one word denoting a species of ant.¹ To these ants is attributed in the Atharvaveda² the power of penetrating to water which possesses curative properties. They were accordingly used in all sorts of spells against poisoning. The belief in their healing qualities was no doubt due to the well-known properties of the earth of ant-heaps which contains their water.

1 Upajihvikā is the form in Rv. viii. 102, 21; upajīkā in Av. ii. 3, 4; vi. 100, 2; but upacīkā in both passages in the Paippalāda recension; upadīkā in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 3, 4; Taittirīya Āraṇyaka, v. 1, 4; 10, 9; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiv. 1, 1, 8.

² vi. 100, 2.

Cf. Bloomfield, American Journal of Philology, 7, 482 ct seq.; Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 511; Whitney's Translation of the Atharvaveda, 41, 354; Bergaigne and Henry, Manuel Védique, 153.

Upa-dhāna denotes the 'cushion' of a seat (Āsandī) in the Atharvaveda (xiv. 2, 65). It corresponds to the Upabarhaṇa of other texts.

Upa-dhi occurs once each in the Rigveda1 and the Atharvaveda,2 in conjunction with Pradhi, denoting part of the wheel of a chariot. It is impossible to decide exactly what part is meant. Roth,3 Zimmer4 and Bloomfield,5 agree in thinking that the word denotes the spokes collectively. Whitney,6 considering this improbable, prefers to see in it the designation of a solid wheel, Pradhi being presumably the rim and Upadhi the rest. Other possibilities are that the Upadhi is a rim beneath the felly, or the felly itself as compared with the tire (ordinarily Pavi).

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1 ii. 39, 4.
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Upa-niṣad in the Brāhmaṇas¹ normally denotes the 'secret sense' of some word or text, sometimes the 'secret rule' of the mendicant. But in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad² it is already used in the plural as the designation of a class of writings, no doubt actually existing and similar to the Upanisads in the nature of their subject-matter and its treatment. Similarly the sections of the Taittiriya Upanisad end with the words ity upanişad. The Aitareya Āranyaka3 commences its third part with the title 'The Upanisad of the Samhita,' and the title occurs also in the Śānkhāyana Āranyaka.4 The exact primary sense of the expression is doubtful. The natural derivation, adopted by Max Müller⁵ and usual ever since, makes the word mean firstly a session of pupils, hence secret doctrine, and secondly the title of a work on secret doctrine. Oldenberg,6 however, traces the use of the word to the earlier

² vi. 70, 3.

³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

⁴ Altindisches Leben, 248 (ignoring the Atharvaveda passage).

⁵ Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 493.

⁶ Translation of the Atharvaveda,

⁷ Bloomfield, loc. cit.

¹ Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, x. 3, 5, 12; 4, 5, 1; 5, 1, 1; xii. 2, 2, 23, etc.; Chandogya Upanisad, i. 1, 10; 13, 4; viii. 8, 4. 5; Brhadāraņyaka Upanisad, ii. 1, 20; iv. 2, 1; v. 5, 3; Aitareya Āraņyaka, iii. 1, 6; 2, 5; Kausītaki Upanișad, ii. 1, etc.

² ii. 4, 10; iv. 1, 2; 5, 11.

³ iii. 1, 1.

⁴ vii. 2. Cf. Taittiriya Upanişad,

⁵ Sacred Books of the East, 1, xxxiii et seq. Cf. St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature,

⁶ Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 50, 457: 54, 70; Die Literatur des alten Indien, 72.

sense of 'worship' (cf. upāsana). Deussen considers the original sense to have been 'secret word,' next 'secret text,' and then 'secret import,' but this order of meaning is improbable. Hopkins⁸ suggests that Upanisad denotes a subsidiary treatise, but this sense does not account naturally for the common use as 'secret meaning,' which is far more frequent than any other.

7 Philosophy of the Upanisads, 16 et seq.

8 Religions of India, 218.

Upa-pati, 'the gallant,' is mentioned with the Jara, 'lover,' in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā1 as a victim in the human sacrifice (burusamedha).

1 xxx. 9; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 4, 1.

Upa-barhana denotes a 'pillow' or 'cushion,' especially of a seat (āsandī), occurring in the Rigveda,1 the Atharvaveda,2 and the Brāhmaṇas.3 The feminine Upabarhaṇī is found in the Rigveda with the same sense, but used metaphorically of the

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1 x. 85, 7.
  <sup>2</sup> ix. 5, 28; xii. 2, 19. 20; xv. 3, 7.
  <sup>3</sup> Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 12; Sata-
patha Brāhmana, xiii. 8, 4, 10; Kausī-
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taki Upanișad, i. 5; Taittirīya Brāhmana, i. 1, 6, 10; 6, 8, 9; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxviii. 4, etc.

Upa-manthanī is used in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad¹ to denote 'churning sticks.' In the Vājasaneyi Samhitā2 the 'churner' (upamanthity) is included in the list of victims at the human sacrifice (puruṣamedha), and the verb upa-manth is often used of churning or mixing fluids.3

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1 vi. 3, 13.
  2 xxx. 12; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii.
                                           3 Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 6, 8, 4. 5;
                                       Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 6, 1, 6; Chān-
4, 8, I.
                                       dogya Upanisad, v. 2, 4.
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Upa-manyu is, according to Ludwig,1 the name of a person in the Rigveda,2 but is more probably explained by Roth3 as a

¹ Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 113. 3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. .2 i. 102. 9.

Upama-śravas is mentioned in a hymn of the Rigveda¹ as a son of Kuruśravaṇa, and grandson of Medhātithi. The exact force of the reference to him is, however, uncertain. According to the Bṛhaddevatā,² followed by Ludwig,³ and by Lanman,⁴ the poet in the hymn consoles Upamaśravas for the death of his grandfather, Medhātithi. Geldner,⁵ on the other hand, thinks that the poet, who was Kavaṣa Ailūṣa, was ill-treated by his patron's son, Upamaśravas, and cast into a ditch or well, where he uttered his complaint and appeal for mercy. But of this there is no adequate evidence, and the tradition of the Bṛhaddevatā seems sound.

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<sup>1</sup> x. 33, 6. 7.

<sup>2</sup> vii. 35. 36, with Macdonell's notes.
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⁵ Vedische Studien, 2, 150, n.

Upa-mit occurs twice in the Rigveda, and once in the Atharvaveda, as the designation of some part of a house. The passages in the Rigveda leave little doubt that the word means an upright pillar. As it is, in the Atharvaveda, coupled with Parimit and Pratimit, the conclusion is natural that the latter word denotes the beams supporting the Upamit, presumably by leaning against it at an angle, while Parimit denotes the beams connecting the Upamits horizontally. These interpretations, however, can only be conjectural. See also Grha.

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1 i. 59, 1; iv. 5, 1.
2 ix. 3, 1.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 153;

Bloomfield, Hymn, 596; Whitney, Atharvaveda, 525.
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Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 596; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 525.

Upara, which, according to Pischel, means 'stone' in general, is the technical name of the stone on which the Soma plant was laid in order to be pounded for the extraction of the juice by other stones (adri, grāvan). The word is rare, occurring only thrice in the Rigveda, and once in the Atharvaveda.

" vi. 49, 3.

³ Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 165.

⁴ Sanskrit Reader, 386, 389.

¹ Vedische Studien, 1, 109. This is the sense of the form upala (Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxv. 8, ct.).

² i. 79, 3; x. 94, 5; 175, 3·

Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 154; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 317; Von Schroeder, Mysterium und Mimus, 414.

Upala-prakṣiṇī occurs once in the Rigveda,¹ where it designates the occupation of a woman, as opposed to that of her son, who is a poet (kāru), and to that of his father, who is a physician (bhiṣaj). Yāska² renders the word by 'maker of groats' (saktu-kārikā), and Roth,³ Grassmann,⁴ Zimmer,⁵ as well as others, connect it with the operation of grinding corn. Pischel,⁶ however, who points out that corn was not ground between two stones, but beaten on a stone with a pestle (dṛṣad), considers that Upala-prakṣiṇī denotes a woman that assisted at the crushing of Soma (cf. Upara). Von Schroeder,⁵ who more correctly points out that there is no objection to regarding upala as the mortar in which the corn was placed and then beaten with the pestle, renders the word literally as 'one who fills the (lower) stone (with corn).'

- 1 ix. 112, 3.
- ² Nirukta, vi. 5.
- ³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

⁴ *Ibid.*; s.v., 'fitting the upper (to the lower) millstone.'

⁵ Allindisches Leben, 269. Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedachrestomathie, s.v., who, taking prc in the sense of 'fill,' explains the compound as 'filling the upper millstone,' an interpretation which as it stands is unintelligible.

6 Vedische Studien, 1, 308-310.

⁷ Mysterium und Mimus, 412 et seq. Von Schroeder does not accept the view that the mother of the singer is alluded to; but it seems impossible to draw any other conclusion from the language of the passage, and his own explanation of the word as referring to a corn-mother is very improbable; cf. Keith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1909, 204.

Upalā in the Brāhmaṇas¹ may denote the upper and smaller 'stone,' which was used as a pestle with the Dṛṣad as the mortar, whereas Upara in the Saṃhitās denotes rather the mortar, and Dṛṣad the pestle. But see Dṛṣad.

1 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 1, 22;
 ii. 1, 14, 17; ii. 2, 2, 1, etc.
 Cf. Von Schroeder, Mysterium und Mimus, 413, n. 3.

Upa-vāka occurs in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā¹ and the Brāh-maṇas² as a description of a species of grain, the Wrightia antidysenterica, known later as Indra-yava. The commentator Mahīdhara³ simply glosses it with the more general term Yava.

¹ xix. 22; 90; xxi. 30 ,as 'heal- | 2 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xii. 7, 1, 3; 2, 9, etc.

According to the Vājasaneyi Samhitā, it formed the essential element of gruel (karambha), and Upavāka groats (saktaval) are mentioned in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa.4

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3 On Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 22.
                                             Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 240,
4 xii. 9, 1, 5.
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Upa-veśi is mentioned as a pupil of Kuśri in a Vamśa (list of teachers) in the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad (vi. 5, 3, in both recensions). See also Aupaveśi.

Upa-śrī, Upa-śraya, are two readings of the same term. The former is found in one recension of the Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad,1 while the latter is probably the reading of the other recension of the Upanisad,2 and certainly the reading in one passage of the Atharvaveda,3 though the text has apaśrayah, which is accepted as possible by Roth.4 In both cases the term clearly means something connected with a couch (Asandi in the Atharvaveda, Paryanka in the Kausitaki Upanisad). Aufrecht,5 Roth,6 and Max Müller7 render it as 'coverlet' or 'cushion,' but Whitney⁸ seems evidently right in holding that it must mean a 'support' or something similar.

- 1 i. 5.
- ² See Keith, Śānkhāyana Āranyaka, 20, n. 3.
- 3 xv. 3, 8. Cf. Whitney's note in his Translation.
- 4 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., and still followed by Böhtlingk, Dictionary, s.v.
- 5 Indische Studien, 1, 131.
- 6 S.v. apaśraya.
- 7 Sacred Books af the East, 1, 278.
- 8 Translation of the Atharvaveda,
- Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 402; 777. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 155.

Upa-starana denotes in the description of the couch (Paryanka) in the Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad¹ a 'coverlet,' and has this sense, used metaphorically, in the Rigveda² also. Atharvaveda³ it seems to have the same meaning. however, renders it 'couch,' though he translates the parallel word Astarana in another passage by 'cushion.'

¹ i. 5.

² ix. 69, 5.

³ v. 19, 12.

⁴ Translation of the Atharvaveda, 254.

⁵ Ibid., 776.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 403;

Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 155.

Upa-sti denotes both in the Rigveda 1 and the Atharvaveda 2 a 'dependent,' just as later in the Epic3 the subordination of the Vaisva to the two superior castes is expressed by the verb upa-sthā, 'stand under,' 'support.' The word also appears, with the same sense, in the form of Sti, but only in the Rigveda.4 The exact nature of the dependence connoted by the term is quite uncertain. Zimmer⁵ conjectures that the 'dependents' were the members of defeated Arvan tribes who became clients of the king, as among the Greeks, Romans, and Germans, the term possibly including persons who had lost their freedom through dicing.6 The evidence of the Atharvaveda7 shows that among the Upastis were included the chariot-makers (ratha-kāra), the smiths (taksan), and the charioteers (sūta), and troop-leaders (grāma-nī), while the Rigveda passages negative the possibility of the 'subjects' (sti) being the whole people. It is therefore fair to assume that they were the clients proper of the king, not servile, but attached in a special relation to him as opposed to the ordinary population. They may well have included among them not only the classes suggested by Zimmer, but also higher elements. such as refugees from other clans, as well as ambitious men who sought advancement in the royal service. Indeed, the Sūta and the Grāmaṇī were, as such, officers of the king's household-kingmakers, not themselves kings, as they are described in the Atharvaveda.8 The use of the word in the Taittirīva Samhitā,9 the Taittirīya Brāhmaņa,10 and the Kāthaka,11 is purely metaphorical, as well as in the one passage of the Rigveda in which it occurs. In the Paippalada recension of the Atharvaveda,12 Vaisya, Sūdra, and Ārya are referred to as Upastis, perhaps in the general sense of 'subject.'

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1 x. 97, 23 (= Vājasaneyi Samhitā,
xii. 101; Av. vi. 15, 1).
  2 iii. 5, 6.
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³ Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 92.

⁴ vii. 19, 11; x. 148, 4; sti-pa, vii. 66, 3; x. 69, 4.

⁵ Altindisches Leben, 184, 185.

⁶ Rv. x. 34.

⁷ Av. iii. 5, 6, 7.

⁸ iii. 5, 7.

⁹ vii. 2, 5, 4. Cf. vi. 5, 8, 2.

¹⁰ iii. 3, 5, 4. 11 xxxi. 9.

¹² iii. 5, 7.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 246; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 92; Weber, Indische Studien, 17, 196 et seq.

Upa-stuta is mentioned several times in the Rigveda, always as a sage of old, and usually in connexion with Kanva, who was aided or favoured by Agni, the Asvins, and other gods. The Upastutas, sons of Vṛṣṭihavya, are mentioned as singers.

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1 i. 36, 10. 17; 112, 15; viii. 5, 25; Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 108; Max Müller, Sacred Books

2 x. 115, 9.

3 viii. 103, 8; x. 115, 9.

of the East, 32, 152, 153.
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Upa-hvara denotes, in one passage of the Rigveda, according to Geldner, the body of a chariot (upa-stha).

1 i. 87, 2. 2 Vedische Studien, 3, 46.

Upānasa is in the Atharvaveda¹ opposed to Akṣa, and must mean something like 'the body of the wagon,' though Sāyaṇa suggests that it signifies either a 'granary' or a 'wagon full of grain.' In the Rigveda,² where the word occurs only once, its sense is doubtful. Pischel³ explains the form which occurs there not as an adjective, but as an infinitive.

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1 ii. 14, 2.

2 x. 105, 4.

3 Vedische Studien, 1, 197.

Cf. Bloomfield, Hymus of the Atharvaveda, 301; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 56.
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Upā-nah is the regular word for a 'sandal' or 'shoe' from the later Saṃhitās¹ onwards. Boarskin is mentioned in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa² as a material of which shoes were made. The combination 'staff and sandals' (daṇḍopānaha) occurs as early as the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa.³

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<sup>1</sup> Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 4, 4, 4; | <sup>2</sup> v. 4, 3, 19. 6, 6, r. etc. <sup>3</sup> iii. 3.
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Upāvi Jāna-śruteya is mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaņa (i. 25, 15) as an authority on the Upasads (a kind of Soma ceremony).

Upoditi Gaupāleya is mentioned in the Pancaviņsa Brāhmaņa (xii. 13, 11) as a seer of Sāmans.

Ubhayā-dant, 'having incisors in both jaws,' is an expression employed to distinguish, among domestic animals, the horse, VOL. I.

the ass, etc., from the goat, the sheep, and cattle. The distinction occurs in a late hymn of the Rigveda, and is several times alluded to in the later Samhitās and the Brāhmaṇas. In one passage of the Taittirīya Samhitā man is classed with the horse as ubhayā-dant. The opposite is anyato-dant, having incisors in one jaw only, a term regularly applied to cattle, the eight incisors of which are, in fact, limited to the lower jaw. The ass is styled ubhayā-dant in the Atharvaveda. In one passage of the Atharvaveda, however, the epithet is applied to a ram; but the sense here is that a marvel occurs, just as in the Rigveda aram destroys a lioness. Bloomfield suggests in the Atharvaveda passage another reading which would mean horse. A parallel division of animals is that of the Taittirīya and Vājasaneyi Samhitās into 'whole-hoofed' (cka-śapha) and small' (ksudra).

Zimmer ¹² seeks to show from the Greek $\partial \mu \phi \omega \delta \delta \sigma \nu \tau a$ ¹³ and the Latin ambidens ¹⁴ that the Indo-European was familiar with the division of the five sacrificial animals into the two classes of man and horse on the one hand, and cattle, sheep, and goats on the other. But this supposition is not necessary.

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1 x. 90, 10.
                                              7 v. 19, 2.
  2 Taittiriya Samhita, ii. 2, 6, 3;
                                              8 viii. 18, 17.
v. 1, 2, 6; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, i. S, 1.
                                              9 Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 434.
  3 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, i. 6, 3, 30
                                             10 iv. 3, 10, 2.
                                             11 xiv. 30.
(ubhayato-dant).
                                             12 Altindisches Leben, 74-76.
  4 ii. 2, 6, 3.
                                             13 Aristotle, Hist. An., ii. 1, 8.
  5 Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 1, 1, 5; v. 1,
                                             14 Festus apud Paulum Diaconum.
2, 6; 5, 1, 3.
                                            Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 58.
  6 v. 31, 3.
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Urā as a name for 'sheep' is confined to the Rigveda.¹ It is curious that in one of its two occurrences the wolf should be referred to as terrifying sheep, and that the epithet of the wolf, urā-mathi, 'killing sheep,' should occur once in the Rigveda,² both references being in one book of the Saṃhitā, a fact which suggests a dialectical origin of the word urā. See also Avi.

Uru-kakṣa occurs in only one passage of the Rigveda,¹ where the sense of the word is much disputed. The reading of the text is uruḥ kakṣo na gāṅgyaḥ, which may refer to a man, Urukakṣa, 'dwelling on the Ganges,'² or to a man, son of Gaṅgā, or to a wood so called,³ or may simply denote the 'broad thicket on the Ganges.'⁴

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1 vi. 45, 31.

2 Grassmann; St. Petersburg Dictionary. Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, 291.
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3 Ludwig's translation (der wald Urukakşa, or das weite dickicht).

4 Weber, Episches im vedischen Ritual, 28, n. 5; Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 396.

Uru-kṣaya.—A family of Urukṣayas, singers and worshippers of Agni, is referred to in one hymn of the Rigveda (x. 118, 8.9).

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 167.

Urunjirā is given in the Nirukta (ix. 26) as one of the names of the river Vipāś (now Beäs).

Urvarā is with Kṣetra the regular expression, from the Rigveda¹ onwards, denoting a piece of 'ploughland' (ἄρουρα). Fertile (aþnasvatī) fields² are spoken of as well as waste fields (ārtanā).³ Intensive cultivation by means of irrigation is clearly referred to both in the Rigveda⁴ and in the Atharvaveda,⁵ while allusion is also made to the use of manure.⁶ The fields (kṣctra) were carefully measured according to the Rigveda.⁶ This fact points clearly to individual ownership in land for the plough, a conclusion supported by the reference of Apālā, in a hymn of the Rigveda,⁶ to her father's field (urvarā), which is put on the same level as his head of hair as a personal possession. Consistent with this are the epithets 'winning fields' (urvarā-sā, urvarā-jit, kṣetra-sā),⁶ while 'lord of fields' used of a god¹o is presumably a transfer of a human epithet (urvarā-pati). Moreover, fields are spoken of in the same

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1 i. 127, 6; iv. 41, 6; v. 33, 4; 6 Av. iii. 14, 3, 4; xix. 31, 3.
vi. 25, 4; x. 30, 3; 142, 3, etc.; Av. x. 6, 33; 10, 8; xiv. 2, 14, etc.
2 Rv. i. 127, 6.
3 Ibid.
4 vii. 49, 2.
5 i. 6, 4; xix. 2, 2.
6 Av. iii. 14, 3, 4; xix. 31, 3.
7 i. 110, 5.
8 viii. 91, 5.
9 Rv. iv. 38, 1, and vi. 20, 1; ii. 21, 1; iv. 38, 1.
10 viii. 21, 3. Cf. Kşetra.
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connexion as children,11 and the conquest of fields (ksetrāni sam-ii) is often referred to in the Samhitas. 12 Very probably, as suggested by Pischel,13 the ploughland was bounded by grass land (perhaps denoted by Khila, Khilya) which in all likelihood would be joint property on the analogy of property elsewhere. There is no trace in Vedic literature of communal property in the sense of ownership by a community of any sort, 14 nor is there mention of communal cultivation. Individual property in land seems also presumed later on. In the Chandogya Upanişad 15 the things given as examples of wealth include fields and houses (āyatanāni). The Greek evidence16 also points to individual ownership. The precise nature of the ownership is of course not determined by the expression 'individual ownership.' The legal relationship of the head of a family and its members is nowhere explained, and can only be conjectured (see Pitr). Very often a family may have lived together with undivided shares in the land. The rules about the inheritance of landed property do not occur before the Sūtras.17 In the Śatapatha Brāhmaņa 18 the giving of land as a fee to priests is mentioned, but with reproof: land was no doubt even then a very special kind of property, not lightly to be given away or parted with.19

11 Rv. iv. 41, 6, etc.

¹² Taittirīya Samhitā, iii. 2, 8, 5; Kāthaka Samhitā, v. 2; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iv. 12, 3.

13 Vedische Studien, 2, 204-207.

14 Cf. Baden Powell, Indian Village Community (1899); Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 236; Mrs. Rhys Davids, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1901, 860.

15 vii. 24, 2.

16 Cf. Diodorus, ii. 40; Arrian, Indica, II; Strabo, p. 703; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 87 et seq. Cf. 1bid., 20, 22, 23.

17 Cf. Gautama Dharma Sūtra, xviii. 5 et seq.; Baudhāyana Dharma Sūtra, ii. 2, 3; Āpastamba Dharma Sūtra, ii. 6, 14. Of course, the rules probably go back to the earlier period, but how far it is impossible to say. With the settlement of the country, however, inheritance of

land and its partition must have become inevitable.

18 xiii. 6, 2, 18; 7, 1, 13. 15.

19 It is significant that in the famous episode (Taittirīya Samhitā, iii. 1, 9, 4) of Manu's division of his property, from which Nābhānedistha was excluded, this exclusion is made good by the son's obtaining cattle (pasavah). It is clear that cattle, not land, was the real foundation of wealth, just as in Ireland, Italy (cf. pecunia), Greece, etc. Cattle could be, and were, used individually, but land was not open to a man's free disposal; no doubt, at any rate, the consent of the family or the community might be required, but we are reduced to reliance on analogy in view of the silence of the texts. Cf. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 289: Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 94-96; Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, 48 et seg.

On the relation of the owners of land to the king and others see Grāma; on its cultivation see Kṛṣi.

Urvārū, f., Urvāruka, n., 'cucumber.' The former1 of these words denotes the plant, the latter² the fruit, but both are very rare. The passages all seem to refer to the fact that the stem of the plant becomes loosened when the fruit is ripe.3 The fruit is also called Urvāru in a Brāhmana.4

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1 Av. vi. 14, 2.
  <sup>2</sup> Rv. vii. 59, 12=Av. xiv. 1, 17=
Maitrāyanī Samhitā, i. 10, 4 = Taittirīya
Samhitā, i. S. 6, 2=Vājasaneyi Sam-
hitā, iii. 60.
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- 3 Sāyana on Av. vi. 14, 2.
- 4 Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa, ix. 2,

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 242.

Ula is the name of some unknown wild animal, perhaps, as Whitney suggests, the 'jackal.' It is mentioned in the Atharvaveda² and later Samhitās,³ but not definitely identified by the commentators.

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<sup>1</sup> Translation of the Atharvaveda,
669.
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- ² xii. 1, 49.
- 3 Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 12, 1 (as
- ūla); Maitrāyani Samhitā, iii. 13, 12; 14,2; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 31. Cf. ulala in Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, ii. 5. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 82.

Ula Vārsni-vrddha is mentioned as a teacher in the Kausītaki Brāhmaņa (vii. 4).

Ulapa¹ is the name of a species of grass referred to in the Rigveda and the later Samhitās.2

- 1 x. 142, 3. ² Av. vii. 66, 1. Adjectives derived (Maitrāyanī Samhitā, i. 7, 2). from the word are ulapya (Vājasaneyi
- Samhitā, xvi. 45, etc.) and upolapa

Ulukya Jāna-śruteya is mentioned as a teacher in the Jaiminīva Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (i. 6, 3).

Ulūka is the ordinary word for 'owl' from the Rigveda¹ onwards. The bird was noted for its cry,² and was deemed the harbinger of ill-fortune (nairrta).³ Owls were offered at the horse sacrifice to the forest trees,⁴ no doubt because they roosted there.

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    x. 165, 4.
    Rv. loc. cit.
    Av. vi. 19, 2; Taittirīya Samhitā, v.
    18, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 38.
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4 Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 23; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 4.

Ulūkhala is the regular expression for 'mortar' from the Rigveda¹ onwards, occurring frequently also in the compound² Ulūkala-musala, 'mortar and pestle.' The exact construction of the vessel is quite unknown till we reach the Sūtra period.

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<sup>1</sup> i. 28, 6, Av. x. 9, 26; xi. 3, 3; xii. 3, 13; Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 2, 8, 7; vii. 2, 1, 3; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 4, 6, etc.
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² Av. ix. 6, 15; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, i. 1, 1, 22.

Ulkā regularly denotes a meteor from the Rigveda¹ onwards. In the Brāhmaṇas² it also signifies a 'firebrand.' The much rarer form Ulkuṣī³ has both senses.

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1 iv. 4, 2; x. 68, 4; Av. xix. 9, 8; Sadvimša Brāhmaņa, vi. 8, etc.

2 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 5, 4, 19.
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³ As 'meteor,' Av. v. 17, 4; Šatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 2, 7, 21; as 'firebrand,' *ibid.*, iii. 9, 2, 9.

Ulmuka is the common word in the Brāhmaṇas¹ for 'firebrand,' from which a coal $(aing\bar{a}ra)^2$ could be taken.

1 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 11; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 8, 2, 1; ii. 1, 4, 28, etc.; Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 76 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 239).

² Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xii. 4, 3, 3; Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, i. 61, 1 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 23, 34²).

Ulmukāvakṣayaṇa is an expression that occurs several times in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,¹ signifying a 'means of extinguishing (ava-kṣayaṇa) a firebrand,' or possibly more precisely 'tongs.' Compare Aṅgārāvakṣayaṇa.

¹ iv. 6, 8, 7; v. 2, 4, 15; xi. 6, 3, 3; Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 76. Cf. Böhtlingk, Dictionary, s.v.

Uśanas Kāvya is an ancient seer, already a half-mythical figure in the Rigveda, where he is often mentioned, especially as associated with Kutsa and Indra. Later on he becomes the Purohita of the Asuras in their contests with the gods. A variant of his name is Kavi Uśanas. He appears in the Brāhmaṇas as a teacher also.

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1 i. 51, 10; 83, 5; 121, 12; iv. 16, 2; vi. 20, 11; viii. 23, 17; ix. 87, 3; 97. 7; x. 40, 7; probably also i. 130, 9; v. 31, 8; 34, 2; viii. 7, 26; x. 22, 6. Also in Av. iv. 29, 6.
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² Taittirīya Sanhitā, ii. 5, 8, 5; Pañcavinsa Brābmaņa, vii. 5, 20; Śāṅkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xiv. 27, 1. 3 Rv. iv. 26, 1.

⁴ Paňcavinsa Brāhmana, xiv. 12, 5; Jaiminīya Upanişad Brāhmana, ii. 7, 2, 6.

Cf. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 2, 167 et seq.; Bergaigne, Religion Védique, 2, 339 et seq.; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 147.

Usanā occurs in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa (iii. 4, 3, 13; iv. 2, 5, 15) as the name of a plant from which Soma was prepared.

Uśīnara.—In the Aitareya Brāhmana 1 the Kuru-Pañcālas are mentioned as dwelling together in the 'Middle Country' with the Vasas and the Usinaras. In the Kausitaki Upanisad2 also the Usinaras are associated with the Kuru-Pañcālas and Vaśas, but in the Gopatha Brāhmaņa3 the Uśīnaras and Vaśas are regarded as northerners. In the Rigveda 4 the people is alluded to in one passage by reference to their queen, Usinarani. Zimmer5 thinks that the Usinaras earlier lived farther to the north-west, but for this there is no clear evidence. His theory is based merely on the fact that the Anukramanī (Index) of the Rigveda ascribes one hymn6 to Sibi Ausīnara, and that the Sibis were known to Alexander's followers as Σίβοι,7 living between the Indus and the Akesines (Chenab). But this is in no way conclusive, as the Sibis, at any rate in Epic times, occupied the land to the north of Kuruksetra, and there is no reason whatever to show that in the Vedic period the Usinaras were farther west than the 'Middle Country.'

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1 viii. 14.
2 iv. 1. See Keith, Šāhkhāyana
Āraṇyaka, 36.
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³ ii. g.

⁴ x. 59, 10.

⁵ Altindisches Leben, 130.

⁶ Rv. x. 179.

⁷ Diodorus, xvii. 19.

⁸ See Pargiter's map, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1908, p. 322. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 213, 419;

Hultzsch, Indian Antiquary, 34, 179.

Uşa, 'salt ground,' occurs as a variant of \overline{U} şa in the Maitrāyanī Samhitā (i. 6, 3).

Uşasta Cākrāyaņa is mentioned as a teacher in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka (iii. 5, 1) and Chāndogya (i. 10, 1; 11, 1) Upaniṣads, the name in the latter work appearing as Uṣasti.

Uṣṭi, Uṣṭra.—Both of these words, of which the former is quite rare,¹ must have the same sense. Roth² and Aufrecht³ hold that in the Rigveda⁴ and the Brāhmaṇas⁵ the sense is 'humped bull' or 'buffalo,' but the former thinks that in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā⁶ the sense is doubtful, and 'camel' may be meant. Hopkins⁻ is decidedly of opinion that the sense in every case is 'camel.' The animal was used as a beast of burden yoked in fours.8

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1 Perhaps in Rv. x. 106, 2; Tait-
tirīya Samhitā, v. 6, 21, 1; Kāthaka
Samhitā, xv. 2.
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2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

4 i. 138, 2; viii. 5, 37; 6, 48; 46,

22. 31; Av. xx. 127, 2; 132, 13; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xiii. 50.

⁵ Šatapatha Brāhmaņa, 1, 2, 3, 9, etc.: Aitareva Brāhmana, ii. 8.

6 xxiv. 28. 39.

7 Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 83.

8 Av. xx. 127, 2; Rv. viii. 6, 48.

Uṣṇīṣa denotes the 'turban' worn by Vedic Indians, men and women¹ alike. The Vrātya's turban is expressly referred to in the Atharvaveda² and the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.³ A turban was also worn at the Vājapeya⁴ and the Rājasūya⁵ ceremonies by the king as a token of his position.

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1 Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vi. 1; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, iii. 3, 2, 3; iv. 5, 2, 7 (used at the sacrifice to wrap the embryo in): xiv. 2, 1, 8 (Indrāņī's Uṣṇṣa), etc.; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xiii. 10.
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3 xvii. 1, 14. Cf. xvi. 6, 13.

4 Satapatha Brāhmana, v. 3, 5, 23.

5 Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iv. 4, 3.

Uṣyala occurs once in the description of the couch or the bridal car in the Atharvaveda, where it seems to mean the four frame-pieces. The form is doubtful: uṣpala is possible.

[&]quot; Cited in Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 5, 468. Cf. Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 224.

² xv. 2, I.

¹ xiv. 1, 60.

Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 385.

[.] Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 155; Whitney, op. cit., 752.

Usra, m.; Usrā, f.; Usrika, m.; Usriya, m.; Usriyā, f. All these words denote a 'bull' or a 'cow,' occurring frequently in the Rigveda,1 and sometimes later,2 but usually with some reference to the morning light. In some passages the sense is doubtful. See Go.

1 Usra, Rv. vi. 12, 4; usrā, i. 3, 8; viii. 75, 8; 96, 8; ix. 58, 2, etc.; usrika, i. 190, 5; usriya, v. 58, 6 (with vṛṣabhaḥ); ix. 74, 3; usriyā, i. 153, 4; 180, 3; ii. 40, 2, etc. In ix. 70, 6, usriya is applied to a calf; and in ix. 68, 1; 93, 2, usriyā means ' milk.'

2 Usrau dhūrsāhau, Vājasaneyi Samhitā, iv. 33; usrā, Av. xii. 3, 37; usriya, Av. i. 12, 1; usriyā, Av. ix. 4, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxxv. 2. 3. In Av. v. 20, 1; 28, 3, it means 'cowhide,' or perhaps in v. 28, 3, 'milk.'

Ū.

Ūrjayant Aupamanyava is mentioned in the Vamsa Brāhmana1 as a pupil of Bhanumant Aupamanyava.

1 Indische Studien, 4, 372.

Urjayantī is regarded by Ludwig1 in one passage of the Rigveda² as the name of a fort, the stronghold of Narmara. The verse is, however, quite unintelligible.3

² ii. 13, S.

1 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 152. | Grassmann, the sun; Roth, s.v. ūrjay, takes it adjectivally. Cf. Oldenberg,

³ Sāyana makes Urjayantī a Pišācī; Rgveda-Noten, 1, 199.

Urjavya, a word occurring only once in the Rigveda,1 is taken by Ludwig2 to be the name of a sacrificer. Roth,3 however, regards the word as an adjective meaning 'rich in strength,' and this is the more probable interpretation.

2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 155. 1 v. 41, 20. 3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Ūrna-nābhi, 1 Ūrņa-vābhi, Ūrņā-vant are all names of the spider in the later Samhitas and the Brahmanas in allusion to the insect's spinning threads of wool, as it were.

5; Brhadāraņyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 1, 23; ūrņa-vābhī ('wool-spinner'), Kāthaka a Mantra).

1 Ūrna-nābhi ('having wool in its | Samhitā, viii. 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, navel'), Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 2, | xiv. 5, 1, 23; ũrṇā-vant ('possessing wool'), Kausītaki Brāhmana, xix. 3 (in

Urnā, 'wool,' is very frequently mentioned from the Rigveda1 onwards. The Parusnī country was famous for its wool, 2 like Gandhāra³ for its sheep. The term for the separate tufts was parvan⁴ or parus.⁵ 'Soft as wool' (ūrṇa-mradas)⁶ is not a rare epithet. The sheep is called 'woolly' (ūrṇāvatī).7 'Woollen thread' (ūrṇā-sūtra) is repeatedly referred to in the later Samhitās⁸ and the Brāhmanas.⁹ The word ūrṇā was not restricted to the sense of sheep's wool, 10 but might denote goat's hair also.11

1 iv. 22, 2; v. 52, 9; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xii. 5, 1, 13; 7, 2, 10, etc.; ūrnāyu, 'woolly,' Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xiii. 50; Pancaviņša Brāhmaņa, xii. II, IO.

2 Rv., loc. cit.; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 210. But cf. Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 315.

3 Rv. i. 126, 7.

4 Rv. iv. 22, 10.

5 Rv. ix. 15, 6.

6 Rv. v. 5, 4; x. 18, 10; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, ii. 2; iv. 10; xxi. 33, etc. 7 Rv. viii. 56, 3.

8 Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 11, 9; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxxviii. 3; Vāja. saneyi Samhitā, xix. 80, etc. Cf. ūrnā-stukā, Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 28; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxv. 3.

⁹ Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 6, 4; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, xii. 7, 2, 11,

10 Cf. anaidakīr ūrņāh ('wool not coming from the cdaka,' a species of sheep) in Satapatha Brāhmaņa, ii. 5, 2, 15.

11 Cf. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 83, n.

Urṇā-vatī.—In the hymn of the Rigveda¹ which celebrates the rivers Ludwig² finds a reference to an affluent of the Indus called Ūrṇāvatī. This interpretation, however, seems certainly wrong. Roth³ renders the word merely as 'woolly,' and Zimmer⁴ rejects Ludwig's explanation on the ground that it throws the structure of the hymn into confusion. Pischel⁵ makes the word an epithet of the Indus, 'rich in sheep.'

Urdara.—This word occurs once in the Rigveda, when reference is made to filling Indra with Soma as one fills an

² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 200.

³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

⁴ Altindisches Leben, 429.

⁵ Vedische Studien, 2, 210.

¹ ii. 14, 11.

Ūrdara with grain (Yava). Sāyaṇa renders it 'granary,' but Roth² and Zimmer³ seem more correct in simply making it a measure for holding grain, or 'garner.'

² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

3 Altindisches Leben, 238.

Ūla is a variant of Ula.

 \overline{U} șa in the later Samhitās ¹ and Brāhmaņas ² denotes salt ground suited for cattle. *Cf.* Uṣa.

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 2, 3, 2, etc.

² Aitareya Brāhmaņa, iv. 27; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 2, t, 16, etc.

R.

1. Rkṣa, 'bear,' is found only once in the Rigveda,¹ and seldom later,² the animal having evidently been scarce in the regions occupied by the Vedic Indians. Not more frequent³ is the use of the word in the plural to denote the 'seven bears,' later called the 'seven Rṣis,'⁴ the constellation of the 'Great Bear' (ἄρκτος, ursa).

1 v. 56, 3.

² Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 14, 17; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 36; Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, i. 184. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 81.

8 Rv. i. 24, 10; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa,

ii. 1, 2, 4; Taittirīya Āraņyaka, i. 11, 2. Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 3, 422.

⁴ Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 144 (D).

2. Rkṣa is the name of a patron mentioned in one verse of a Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts') in the Rigveda, his son being referred to in the next verse as Ārkṣa.

1 viii. 68, 15. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 163.

Rkṣākā is a word occurring once in an obscure passage of the Atharvaveda.¹ The sense is quite unknown. Weber² thinks it refers to the 'milky way,' but his view rests on no evidence. Whitney³ despairs of the passage.

¹ xviii 2, 31. | Catalogue, 2, 59, n.; Proceedings of the

² Festgruss an Roth, 138, n. 2; Berlin | Berlin Academy, 1895, 856.

³ Translation of the Atharvaveda, 840.

Rkṣīkā, a word found in the Atharvaveda,¹ the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā,² and the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,³ appears to denote a demon. Harisvāmin, however, in his commentary on the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, connects the word with Rkṣa, as meaning 'bear.'

Rg-veda, the formal name of the collection of Rcs, first appears in the Brāhmaṇas, and thereafter frequently in the Āraṇyakas and Upaniṣads.

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1 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 32, and implied in Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 12, 9, 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. 5, 4, 6; 8, 3; xii. 3, 4, 9.
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² Aitareya Āranyaka, iii. 2, 3, 5; Sānkhāyana Āranyaka, viii. 3, 8. ³ Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, i. 5, 12;
ii. 4, 10; iv. 1, 6; 5, 11; Chāndogya
Upaniṣad, i. 3, 7; iii. 1, 2. 3; 15, 7;
vii. 1, 2. 4; 2, 1; 7, 1.

Rjiśvan is mentioned several times in the Rigveda,¹ but always in a vague manner, as if very ancient. He assists Indra in fights against demoniac figures like Pipru and the dusky brood (kṛṣṇa-garbhāh). According to Ludwig,² he was called Auśija's son,³ but this is doubtful. He is twice⁴ clearly called Vaidathina, or descendant of Vidathin.

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1 i. 51, 5; 53, 8; 101, 1; vi. 20, 7; viii. 49, 10; x. 99, 11; 138, 3.

2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 143, 24.

2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 143, 25.

2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 143, 26.

2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 143, 26.

3 Rv. x. 99, 11. Cf. Ausija.

4 Rv. iv. 16, 13; v. 29, 11.

Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 161 (C).
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Rjūnas is mentioned once only in the Rigveda¹ along with six other Soma sacrificers.

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1 viii. 52, 2. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 163.
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Rjrāśva appears in the Rigveda¹ as one of the Vārṣāgiras, along with Ambarīṣa, Surādhas, Sahadeva, and Bhayamāna, and as apparently victorious in a race. Elsewhere² in the

¹ i. 100, 16. 17.

Rigveda he is celebrated as having been blinded by his father for slaying one hundred rams for a she-wolf, and as having been restored to sight by the Aśvins, a legend of quite obscure meaning.

Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 52.

Rṇa, 'debt,' is repeatedly mentioned from the Rigveda¹ onwards, having apparently been a normal condition among the Vedic Indians. Reference is often made² to debts contracted at dicing. To pay off a debt was called rṇaṃ saṃ-nī.³ Allusion is made to debt contracted without intention of payment.⁴

The result of non-payment of a debt might be very serious: the dicer might fall into slavery.⁵ Debtors, like other malefactors, such as thieves, were frequently bound by their creditors to posts (dru-pada),⁶ presumably as a means of putting pressure on them or their friends to pay up the debt.

The amount of interest payable is impossible to make out. In one passage of the Rigveda and Atharvaveda an eighth (\hat{sapha}) and a sixteenth ($kal\bar{a}$) are mentioned as paid, but it is quite uncertain whether interest or an instalment of the principal is meant. Presumably the interest would be paid in kind.

How far a debt was a heritable interest or obligation does not appear. The Kauśika Sūtra⁸ regards three hymns of the

¹ ii. 27, 4, etc., usually in a metaphorical sense.

² Rv. x. 34, 10; Av. vi. 119, 1.

³ Rv. viii. 47, 17 = Av. vi. 46, 3.

⁴ Av. vi. 119, 1.

⁵ Rv. x. 34. Cf. Lüders, Das Würfel-

spiel im alten Indien, 61.

⁶ Rv. x. 34, 4, seems to refer rather to the binding and taking away as a slave, though Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1, 228, explains it as the binding of a debtor for non-payment, interpreting the obscure verse i. 169, 7, in the same way. But Av. vi. 115, 2. 3, may refer to debt, and if this is the meaning the

allusion to binding to a post as a punishment is clear. See, however, Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 528, n. 1; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 364, who interprets the hymn as referring only to sin. Rv. i. 24, 13. 15; Av. vi. 63, 3=84, 4; 121, 1 et seq., arc general; while Rv. vii. 86, 5; Av. xix. 47, 9; 50, 1, refer to the binding of thieves in the stocks. Cf. Taskara.

⁷ Rv. viii. 47, 17=Av. vi. 46, 3.

⁸ xlvi. 36-40. See Caland, Altindisches Zauberritual, 154; Bloomfield, op. cit., 528.

Atharvaveda⁹ as applicable to the occasion of the payment of a debt after the creditor's decease. For the payment of a debt by a relation of the debtor the evidence is still less clear.¹⁰

Zimmer¹¹ thinks that payments of debt were made in the presence of witnesses who could be appealed to in case of dispute. This conclusion is, however, very uncertain, resting solely on a vague verse in the Atharvaveda.¹²

⁹ vi. 117-119. The name for unpaid debt is in Av. vi. 117, 1, afamityam apratīttam. In the Taittirīya Samhitā, iii. 3, 8, 1, kusīdam apratīttam; in the Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iv. 14, 17, and Taittirīya Āraņyaka, ii. 3, 1, 8, kusīdam apratītam; in the Mantra Brāhmaņa, ii. 3, 20, apradattam.

10 Cf. Rv. iv. 3, 13 (a brother's sin or debt); Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 99, 100.

11 Altindisches Leben, 181. This suggestion is ignored by Bloomfield, op. cit., 375, and Whitney, op. cit., 304.

12 vi. 32, 3=viii. 8, 21. Cf. Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka, xii. 14, and see Jħ**ātṛ.** Cf. Zimmer, op. cit., 181, 182; 259.

Rṇaṃ-caya, a prince of the Ruśamas, is celebrated in a Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts') of the Rigveda (v. 30, 12. 14) for his generosity to a poet named Babhru.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 129; Brhaddevata, ed. Macdonell, 2, 169, 174.

Rtu, 'season,' is a term repeatedly mentioned from the Rigveda¹ onwards. Three seasons of the year are often alluded to,² but the names are not usually specified. In one passage of the Rigveda³ spring (vasanta), summer ($gr\bar{\imath}sma$), and autumn (sarad) are given. The Rigveda knows also the rainy season ($pr\bar{a}-vr\bar{s}$) and the winter ($him\bar{a}$, hemanta). A more usual⁴ division (not found in the Rigveda) is into five seasons.

1 i. 49, 3; 84, 18, etc.

² Cf. Rv. i. 164, 2 (tri-nābhi), 48 (trīni nabhyāni); also perhaps the Rbhus as the genii of the three seasons and the three dawns. Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythologie, 2, 33 ct seq.; Satapatha Brāhmana, xiv. 1, 1, 28, and the cāturmāsyāni, or four-monthly sacrifices performed at the beginning of the seasons in the ritual (Weber, Naxatra, 2, 329 ct seq.).

3 x. 90, 6. Hillebrandt, op. cit., 2, 35, finds in Rv. v. 14, 4; ix. 91, 6, reference to three seasons in the triad gavah (? spring), apah (rains), svar

(=gharma), and in the ritual literature (Āpastamba Śrauta Sūtra, viii. 4, 2) in the threefold division into rta, gharma, and osadhi.

4 Av. viii. 2, 22; 9, 15; xiii. 1, 18; Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 6, 2, 3; iv. 3, 3, 1, 2; v. 1, 10, 3; 3, 1, 2; 4, 12, 2; 6, 10, 1; 7, 2, 4; vii. 1, 18, 1, 2; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, i. 7, 3; iii. 4, 8; 13, 1; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, iv. 14; ix. 16; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, x. 10-14; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 5, 11; vi. 2, 2, 3, etc.; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 10, 4, 1; 11, 10, 4, etc. Cf. Rv. i. 164, 13. See also Weber, op. cit., 2, 352.

vasanta, grīṣma, varṣā, śarad, hemanta-śiśira; but occasionally the five are otherwise divided, varṣā-śarad being made one season. Sometimes six seasons are reckoned, hemanta and śiśira being divided, so that the six seasons can be made parallel to the twelve months of the year. A still more artificial arrangement makes the seasons seven, possibly by reckoning the intercalary month as a season, as Weber and Zimmer hold, or more probably because of the predilection for the number seven, as Roth suggests. Occasionally the word rtu is applied to the months. The last season, according to the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, is hemanta.

The growth of the division of the seasons from three to five is rightly explained by Zimmer 12 as indicating the advance of the Vedic Indians towards the east. It is not Rigvedic, but dominates the later Samhitās. Traces of an earlier division of the year into winter and summer do not appear clearly in the Rigveda, where the appropriate words himā and samā are merely general appellations of the year, and where śarad 13 is commoner than either as a designation of the year, because it denotes the harvest, a time of overwhelming importance to a young agricultural people. The division of the year in one passage of the Atharvaveda 14 into two periods of six months is merely formal, and in no way an indication of old tradition.

⁵ Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 6, 1,

⁶ Av. vi. 55, 2; xii. 1, 36; Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 1, 5, 2; 7, 3; 2. 6, 1, etc.; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, i. 7, 3; iii. 11, 12; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, viii. 6; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxi. 23-28; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 2, 21; ii. 4, 2, 2; xii. 5, 2, 34; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 6, 19, etc. Cf. also Rv. i. 23, 15, as interpreted by Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. indu.

⁷ Av. vi. 61, 2; viii. 9, 18; Šatapatha Brāhmaņa, viii. 5, 1, 15; ix. 1, 2, 31; 2, 3, 45; 3, 1, 19; 5, 2, 8; perhaps Av. iv. 11, 9, and cf. Rv. i. 164, 1.

⁸ Indische Studien, 18, 44; Altindisches Leben, 374.

⁹ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. rtu. Cf. Hopkins, Religions of India, 18, 33.

¹⁰ Av. xv. 4; Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 4, 11, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xiii. 25; xiv. 6, 15, 26, 27; xv. 57, etc.

¹¹ i. 5, 3, 13.

¹² Op. cit., 373.

¹³ Hopkins, American Journal of Philology, 15, 159, 160; Weber, Indische Studien, 17, 232; Bühler, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 41, 28.

¹⁴ viii. 9, 17. Cf. Zimmer, 372.

Rtu-parṇa appears in a Brāhmaṇa-like passage of the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra¹ as son of Bhaṅgāśvina and king of Śaphāla. In the Āpastamba Śrauta Sūtra² are mentioned Rtuparṇa-Kayovadhī Bhaṅgyaśvinau.

¹ xx. 12. ² xxi. 20, 3. Cf. Caland, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 57, 745.

Rtv-ij is the regular term for 'sacrificial priest,' covering all the different kinds of priests employed at the sacrifice. It appears certain that all the priests were Brāhmaṇas.1 The number of priests officiating at a sacrifice with different functions was almost certainly seven. The oldest list, occurring in one passage of the Rigveda,2 enumerates their names as Hotr, Potr, Nestr, Agnīdh, Praśāstr, Adhvaryu, Brahman, besides the institutor of the sacrifice. The number of seven probably explains the phrase 'seven Hotrs' occurring so frequently in the Rigveda, and is most likely connected with that of the mythical 'seven Rsis.' It may be compared with the eight of Iran.3 The chief of the seven priests was the Hotr, who was the singer of the hymns, and in the early times their composer also. The Adhvaryu performed the practical work of the sacrifice, and accompanied his performance with muttered formulas of prayer and deprecation of evil. His chief assistance was derived from the Agnidh, the two performing the smaller sacrifices without other help in practical matters. The Praśāstr, Upavaktr, or Maitrāvaruņa, as he was variously called, appeared only in the greater sacrifices as giving instructions to the Hotr, and as entrusted with certain litanies. The Potr, Nestr, and Brahman belonged to the ritual of the Soma sacrifice, the latter being later styled Brāhmanācchamsin to distinguish him from the priest who in the later

¹ This is assumed throughout the Vedic texts, and is accompanied by the rule that no Kṣatriya can eat of the sacrificial offering (cf. Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 26): no doubt because only the Brāhmaṇas were sufficiently holy to receive the divine essence of

the sacrifice into which, by partaking of it, the deity has entered in part.

² ii. 1, 2. Cf. Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 383.

³ Darmesteter, Le Zend-Avesta, 1, lxx et seq.

ritual acted as supervisor. Other priests referred to in the Rigveda⁴ are the singers of Sāmans or chants, the Udgātṛ and his assistant the Prastotṛ, while the Pratihartṛ, another assistant, though not mentioned, may quite well have been known. Their functions undoubtedly represent a later stage of the ritual, the development of the elaborate series of sacrificial calls on the one hand, and on the other the use of long hymns addressed to the Soma plant. Other priests, such as the Achāvāka,⁵ the Grāvastut, the Unnetṛ, and the Subrahmaṇya, were known later in the developed ritual of the Brāhmaṇas, making in all sixteen priests, who were technically and artificially classed in four groups⁶: Hotṛ, Maitrāvaruṇa, Achāvāka, and Grāvastut; Udgātṛ, Prastotṛ, Pratihartṛ, and Subrahmaṇya; Adhvaryu, Pratisthātṛ, Neṣṭṛ, and Unnetṛ; Brahman, Brāhmaṇācchaṃsin, Agnīdhra, and Potṛ.

Apart from all these priests was the Purohita, who was the spiritual adviser of the king in all his religious duties. Geldner⁷ holds that, as a rule, when the Purohita actually took part in one of the great sacrifices he played the part of the Brahman, in the sense of the priest who superintended the whole conduct of the ritual. He sees evidence for this view in a considerable number of passages of the Rigveda⁸ and the later literature,⁹ where Purohita and Brahman were combined or identified. Oldenberg,¹⁰ however, more correctly points out

⁴ Rv. viii. 81, 5.

⁵ Cf., for the Achāvāka, Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa, xxviii. 4; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vi. 14, 8, etc.; Bergaigne, Recherches sur l'histoire de la liturgie védique, 47; Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 397, n. 2. The other three occur in the Aitareya and other Brāhmaṇas. See St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

⁶ Āśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iv. 1, 4-6; Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtras, xiii. 14, 1, etc. In the Rigveda Sūtra the order of the four sets is Hotr, Brahman, Udgātr, and Adhvaryu. Sometimes a seventeenth priest is mentioned, but he was not usually approved, though the Kauşītakins maintained him as the Sadasya. See Satapatha Brāhmana,

x. 4, 1, 19; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 43, 348, n.; Keith, Aitarcya Āranyaha, 37; Weber, Indische Studien, 9, 375.

⁷ Vedische Studien, 2, 143 et seq.

⁸ Rv. i. 44, 10; 94, 6; viii. 27, 1, etc. 9 Bṛhaspati is Purohita of the gods, Rv. ii. 24, 9; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 7, 1, 2; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 17, 2; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 3, 1, 2; but Brahman in Rv. x. 141, 3; Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa, vi. 13; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 4, 21. Vasiṣṭha is Purohita, Rv. x. 150, 5, of Sudās Paijavana, Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 11, 4; but Brahman of the Sunaḥsepa sacrifice, ibid., xv. 21.

¹⁰ Op. cit., 3So et seq.

that in the earlier period this was not the case: the Purohita was then normally the Hotr, the singer of the most important of the songs; it was only later that the Brahman, who in the capacity of overseer of the rite is not known to the Rigveda. acquired the function of general supervision hitherto exercised by the Purohita, who was ex officio skilled in the use of magic and in guarding the king by spells which could also be applied to guarding the sacrifice from evil demons. With this agrees the fact that Agni, pre-eminently 11 the Purohita of men, is also a Hotr, and that the two divine Hotrs of the Apri hymns are called 12 the divine Purohitas. On the other hand, the rule is explicitly recognized in the Aitareya Brāhmana 13 that a Kşatriya should have a Brahman as a Purohita; and in the Taittiriya Samhita 14 the Vasistha family have a special claim to the office of Brahman-Purohita, perhaps an indication that it was they who first as Purohitas exchanged the function of Hotrs for that of Brahmans in the sacrificial ritual.

The sacrifices were performed for an individual in the great majority of cases. The Sattra, 15 or prolonged sacrificial session, was, however, performed for the common benefit of the priests taking part in it, though its advantageous results could only be secured if all the members actually engaged were consecrated $(d\bar{\iota}ksita)$. Sacrifices for a people as such were unknown. The sacrifice for the king was, it is true, intended to bring about the prosperity of his people also; but it is characteristic that the prayer 16 for welfare includes by name only the priest and the king, referring to the people indirectly in connexion with the prosperity of their cattle and agriculture.

¹¹ Agni as Hotr and Purohita occurs in Rv. i. 1, 1; iii. 3, 2; 11, 1; v. 11, 2. His Purohitaship is described in terms characteristic of the Hotr's functions in Rv. viii. 27, 1; x. 1, 6. Devăpi is Purohita and Hotr, Rv. x. 98.

¹² Rv. x. 66, 13; in-x. 70, 7, purohitāv ptvijā.

¹³ vii. 26.

¹⁴ iii. 5, 2, 1, etc.

¹⁵ Oldenberg, 371.

¹⁶ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxii. 22; Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 5, 18; Maitrā-yanī Samhitā, iii. 12, 6; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, v. 5, 14, etc.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 141 et seq.; 376 et seq.; Hillebrandt, Ritual-litteratur, 97; Oldenberg, op. cit., 370, 397; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 224.

Rsya.—This is the correct 1 spelling of a word that occurs in the Rigveda² and the later literature³ meaning 'stag,' the feminine being Rohit.4 Apparently deer were caught in pits (rśya-da). The procreative power of the stag (ārśya vṛṣṇya) was celebrated.6

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1 It appears in Av. iv. 4, 7, as Rsa;
as Rsya in Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 14,
9. 18.
 " viii. 4, 10.
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13 Av. iv. 4, 5. 7; v. 14, 3; i. 18, 4 (rśya-pad); Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 27. 37; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, iii. 33; citation in Śāńkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, viii. 25, 8, etc.

6 Av. iv. 4, 5.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 18, 18; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 82; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 150, 151.

1. Rsabha is the common name of the 'bull' from the Rigveda¹ onwards.² See also Go.

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1 vi. 16, 47; 28, 8; x. 91, 14, | Samhitā, ii. 1, 3, 2, etc.; Vājasaneyi
etc.
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Samhită, xxi. 22, etc.; Pañcavimsa ² Av. iii. 6, 4; 23, 4, etc.; Taittirīya | Brāhmaņa, xiii. 5, 18, etc.

2. Rṣabha, king of the Śviknas, appears in the Śatapatha Brāhmaņa1 with the patronymic Yājñatura, as one of those who performed an Asvamedha or horse sacrifice. He is also mentioned there² as having probably been the source of a saying of Gaurīviti Śāktya's.

> 1 xiii. 5, 4, 15. Cf. Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 9, 8-10. 2 xii. S, 3, 7.

3. Rşabha is mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmana (vii. 17) as a son of Viśvāmitra.

Rsi, 'seer,' is primarily a composer of hymns to the gods. In the Rigveda¹ reference is often made to previous singers and to contemporary poets. Old poems were inherited and refurbished by members of the composer's family,2 but the great aim of the singers was to produce new and approved hymns.3 It is not till the time of the Brahmanas that the

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3 i. 109, 2; ii. 18, 3; iii. 62, 7;
  1 i. 1, 2; 45, 3; viii. 43, 13, etc.
  <sup>2</sup> i. 89, 3; 96, 2; iii. 39, 2; viii. 6,
                                             vi. 50, 6; vii. 14, 4; 93, 1; viii. 23, 14, etc.
II. 43; 76, 6, etc.
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⁴ Av. iv. 4, 7.

⁵ Rv. x. 39, 8.

composition of hymns appears to have fallen into disuse,4 though poetry was still produced, for example, in the form of Gāthās, which the priests were required to compose themselves⁵ and sing to the accompaniment of the lute at the sacrifice. The Rsi was the most exalted of Brāhmaņas,6 and his skill, which is often compared with that of a carpenter,7 was regarded as heaven-sent.8 The Purohita, whether as Hotr or as Brahman (see Rtvij), was a singer.9 No doubt the Rsis were normally 10 attached to the houses of the great, the petty kings of Vedic times, or the nobles of the royal household. Nor need it be doubted that occasionally 11 the princes themselves essayed poetry: a Rājanyarṣi, the prototype of the later Rājarsi or 'royal seer,' who appears in the Pancavimśa Brāhmana,12 though he must be mythical as Oldenberg13 points out, indicates that kings cultivated poetry 14 just as later they engaged in philosophic disputations. 15 Normally, however, the poetical function is Brahminical, Viśāmitra and others not being kings, but merely Brāhmaņas, in the Rigveda.

In the later literature the Rsis are the poets of the hymns preserved in the Samhitās. a Rsi being regularly cited when a Vedic Samhitā is quoted. Moreover, the Rsis become the representatives of a sacred past, and are regarded as holy sages,

4 Geldner, Vedische Studien, 2, 151. 5 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 2, 8;

3, 5. ⁶ Rv. ix. 96, 6, etc. Cf. Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xii. 4, 4, 6, where preeminence is assigned to a Brāhmana

descended from a Rsi.

7 Rv. i. 130, 6; v. 2, 11; 29, 15; 73, 10; x. 39, 14. So a poet is a Kāru (if from kr, 'make,' but usually derived from kr, 'commemorate'), and makes (kr, Rv. ii. 39, 8; viii. 62, 4) as well as creates (jan, Rv. vii. 15, 4; viii. 88, 4)

hymns.

8 Rv. i. 37, 4; vii. 36, 1. 9; viii. 32, 27; 57, 6, etc.

Rv. i. 151, 7; Geldner, op. cit., 2,
153; Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 380.
Geldner, op. cit., 2, 154, cites the
Dānastutis as characteristic of princes

in the tradition of the Brhaddevata, etc.

11 Ibid., 154.

12 xii. 12, 6, etc.

¹³ Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 45, 235, n. 3.

14 Later on it was deemed quite normal and natural. See the story of Rathaviti Dārbhya, or Dālbhya, himself a royal seer, and Taranta and Purumijha, seers and also kings, in Brhaddevata, v. 50 et seq.

15 Cf. Garbe, Philosophy of Ancient India, 73 et seq.; Deussen, Philosophy of the Upanisads, 16 et seq.; Keith, Aitarcya

Āranyaka, 50.

16 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 25; viii. 26 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 4, 4; ii. 2 3, 6; 5, 1, 4; vi. 1, 1, 1, etc.; Nirukta, vii. 3, etc. whose deeds are narrated as if they were the deeds of gods or Asuras.¹⁷ They are typified by a particular group of seven,¹⁸ mentioned four times in the Rigveda,¹⁹ several times in the later Saṃhitās,²⁰ and enumerated in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad²¹ as Gotama, Bharadvāja, Viśvāmitra, Jamadagni, Vasiṣṭha, Kaśyapa, and Atri. In the Rigveda itself Kutsa,²² Atri,²³ Rebha,²⁴ Agastya,²⁵ the Kuśikas,²⁶ Vasiṣṭha,²⁷ Vyaśva,²⁸ and others appear as Rṣis; and the Atharvaveda ²⁹ contains a long list, including Aṅgiras, Agasti, Jamadagni, Atri, Kaśyapa, Vasiṣṭha, Bharadvāja, Gaviṣṭhira, Viśvāmitra, Kutsa, Kakṣīvant, Kaṇva, Medhātithi, Triśoka, Uśanā Kāvya, Gotama, and Mudgala.

Competition among the bards appears to have been known. This is one of the sides of the riddle poetry (Brahmodya) that forms a distinctive feature³⁰ of the Vedic ritual of the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice. In the Upaniṣad period such competitions were quite frequent. The most famous was that of Yājñavalkya, which was held at the court of Janaka of Videha, as detailed in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad,³¹ and which was a source of annoyance to Ajātaśatru of Kāśī.³² According to an analogous practice, a Brāhmaṇa, like Uddālaka Aruṇi, would go about disputing with all he came across, and compete with them for a prize of money.³³

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Compete with them for a prize of Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 17; ii. 19; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 2, 7, etc. 19 Gf. Indische Studien, 8, 167. 19 iv. 42, 8; x. 109, 4; 130, 7; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 144. 20 Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xiv. 24; Av. xi. 1, 1, 24; xii. 1, 39, etc. 21 ii. 2, 6. 22 i. 106, 6. 23 i. 117, 3. 24 i. 117, 4. 25 i. 179, 6. 28 iii. 53, 10. 27 vii. 33, 13.
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28 viii. 23, 16.

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29 iv. 29. Cf. xviii. 3, 15. 16.
30 Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 345.
346; Bloomfield, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 172; Religion des Veda, 216 et seq.
31 iii. 1, 1 et seq.
32 Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 1, 1 et seq.; Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad, iv. 1 et seq.; 33 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 4, 1, 1 et seq.; Gopatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 8 et seq.; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 2, 185. 344.
Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 340-
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347; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 3, 120 et

Rsis.—The term 'Seven Rsis' denotes the 'Great Bear' (see r. Rksa) in one passage of the Rigveda, and occasionally

later.2 This is probably a secondary use, instead of the seven Rksas, brought about by the frequent mention of the seven Rsis.

Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 310, merely renders it as 'seven seers,' and appears not to take it in a technical sense); Satapatha Brāhmana,

² Av. vi. 40, 1 (where, however, | ii. 1, 2, 4; xiii. 8, 1, 9; Nirukta, x. 26.

Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 3, 422; Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 144.

Rșți is a term frequently employed in the Rigveda 1 to designate a weapon held in the hands of the Maruts, and doubtless meant to indicate lightning. That it denotes a spear in mortal warfare, as Zimmer² thinks, is not shown by a single passage.³

1 Rv. i. 37, 1; 64, 4. 8; 166, 4; v. 52, 6; 54, 11; 57, 6; viii. 20, 11. Indra has a Rsti in Rv. i. 169, 3 (cf. Av. iv. 37, 8). Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 79. 2 Altindisches Leben, 301.

3 Rv. i. 167, 3; vii. 55, 2; viii. 28, 5; x. 87, 7. 24 are all mythological or contain similes.

Cf. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 221.

Rșți-sena is mentioned in the Nirukta1 as an explanation of the patronymic Arstisena, but nothing else is known of him.

1 ii, 11. Cf. Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 130, 136.

Rsya-śrnga appears as a teacher, pupil of Kaśyapa, and as bearing the patronymic Kāśyapa in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmana¹ and in the Vamsa Brāhmana.² The more correct spelling of the name is Rsya-śrnga.3

teachers).

² Indische Studien, 4, 374, 385.

3 The later legend connected with the name may contain old elements

1 iii. 40, I (in a Vamsa, or list of | (see Lüders, Die Sage von Rshyaśringa, 1897; Von Schroeder, Mysterium und Mimus, 292-301), but it is not known to any Vedic text.

E.

Eka-dyū is mentioned as a poet in one hymn of the Rigveda.1 1 viii. 80, 10. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 112.

Eka-yāvan Gām-dama is a man mentioned in the Pañcavimsa Brāhmana 1 and the Taittirīya Brāhmana.2

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1 xxi. 14, 20.
<sup>2</sup> ii. 7, 11 (Kāṃdama).
Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, i. 32;
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Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 69.

Eka-rāj, 'sole ruler,' 'monarch,' seems to mean no more than 'king.' In the Rigveda the term is used metaphorically only. But it is found with the literal sense in the Aitareya Brāhmana,2 as well as in the Atharvaveda.3

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1 viii. 37, 3.
                                        Cf. Weber, Rajasaya, 141.
2 viii. 15.
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Ekāyana denotes some object of study in the Chāndogya Upanisad. The St. Petersburg Dictionary renders it 'doctrine (ayana) of unity ' (eka), 'monotheism,' while Max Müller prefers 'ethics,' and Monier-Williams in his Dictionary 'worldly wisdom.'2

thus follow Sankara's interpretation | Little, Grammatical Index, 43.

1 vii. 1, 2, 4; 2, 1; 7, 1.
2 Max Müller and Monier-Williams as nīti-śāstru, 'moral teaching.' Cf.
Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 267, 484;

Ekāstakā.—That Astakā is the eighth day after the full moon appears clearly from the Atharvaveda.1 Ekāṣṭakā, or 'sole Astakā,' must denote not merely any Astakā, but some particular one. Sāyaṇa, in his commentary on the Atharvaveda,2 in which a whole hymn celebrates the Ekāṣṭakā, fixes the date meant by the term as the eighth day in the dark half of the month of Māgha (January-February). The Ekāṣṭakā is declared in the Taittiriya Samhita3 to be the time for the consecration (dīkṣā) of those who are going to perform a yearlong sacrifice. See also Māsa.

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1 xv. 16, 2. Cf. Satapatha Brāh- | 11, 1; v. 7, 2, 2; Pancaviņša Brāh-
maṇa, vi. 2, 2, 23; 4, 2, 10.
                                         mana, v. 9, 4.
                                           Cf. Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 365;
  2 iii. 10.
 3 vii. 4, 8, 1. Cf. iii. 3, 8, 4; iv. 3, Weber, Nazatra, 2, 341, 342.
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Ejatka is the name of an insect in the Atharvaveda.1

1 v. 23, 7. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 98; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 262.

Edaka appears to denote a 'vicious ram' in the Satapatha1 and Jaiminīya2 Brāhmaņas.

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Oriental Society, 23, 332). Cf. Eggeling,
1 xii, 4, 1, 4; cf. ii. 5, 2, 15.
2 i. 51, 4 (Journal of the American | Sacred Books of the East, 44, 178.
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Eṇī denotes the 'female antelope' in the later Saṃhitās,¹ perhaps as the feminine of Eta.

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1 Av. v. 14, 11; Taittirīya Samhitā, | iii. 14, 17; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, XXIV. v. 5, 15, 1; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, | 36; Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 82.
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Eta in the plural (etāḥ) denotes the steeds of the Maruts, being a swift species of deer, which are mentioned several times in the Rigveda,¹ and the skins of which are also said to be worn by the Maruts on their shoulders.² The epithet pṛthu-budhna, once applied to them in the Rigveda,³ and variously interpreted as 'broad-hoofed,'⁴ 'broad-chested,'⁵ and 'broad in the hinder part,'⁶ seems to indicate that they were not gazelles.'

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1 i. 165, 2; 169, 6. 7; v. 54, 5; x. 77, 2.

2 Rv. i. 166, 10. Cf. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

3 i. 169, 6.

4 By Grassman and Zimmer.

5 Griffith, Hymns of the Rigveda,
1, 235.
6 Monier Williams, Dictionary, s.v.
7 Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 83.
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1. Etaśa is in several passages of the Rigveda, according to Roth the name of a protégé whom Indra helped against the sun-god Sūrya. But in all these passages Etaśa seems merely to designate the horse of the sun.

2. Etaśa is in the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa¹ the name of a sage who is said to have cursed his children because they interrupted him in the midst of a rite; hence the Aitaśāyanas (descendants of Etaśa) are declared to be the worst of the Bhṛgus. The same story appears in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,² where, however, the sage's name is Aitaśa, and the Aitaśāyanas are described as the worst of the Aurvas.

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1 xxx. 5.
2 vi. 33. Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 173.
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Edidhişuḥ-pati is a term occurring only in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, where the commentator Mahīdhara interprets it as

meaning the 'husband of a younger sister married before the elder sister.' Though this sense is probably correct, the form is doubtless, as Delbrück² points out, corrupt. See Didhiṣūpati.

² Die indogermanischen Verwandschaftsnamen, 569, n. 1.

Eranda, the castor-oil plant (Ricinus communis), is first mentioned in the Śānkhāyana Āraņyaka (xii. 8).

Evāvada is regarded by Ludwig1 in a very obscure passage of the Rigveda² as the name of a singer beside Ksatra, Manasa, and Yajata. The commentator Sayana also interprets the word as a proper name. Roth,3 however, considers it to be an adjective meaning 'truthful.'

1 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 138. 3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

AI.

Aikādaśākṣa Mānu-tantavya appears in the Aitareya Brāhmana 1 as a king who observed the rule of sacrificing when the sun had risen (udita-homin), and as a contemporary of Nagarin Jāna-śruteya.

1 v 30. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 223.

Aikṣvāka, 'descendant of Ikṣvāku,' is the patronymic borne by Purukutsa in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa. Another Aikṣvāka is Vārsni, a teacher mentioned in the Jaiminīya Upanisad Brāhmaṇa.² A king Hariścandra Vaidhasa Aikṣvāka is known to the Aitareya Brähmana,3 and Tryaruna is an Aikṣvāka in the Pañcavimsa Brahmana.4

Aitareya, perhaps a patronymic from Itara, though the commentator Sāyaṇa¹ regards the word as a metronymic from

¹ Cited by Aufrecht, Aitareya Brāhmaņa, 3.

Itarā, is an epithet of Mahidāsa in the Aitareya Āraṇyaka² and the Chāndogya Upaniṣad.³

² ii. 1, 8; 3, 7. ³ iii. 16, 7. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 389. The form Aitareyin occurs in the Anupada Sūtra, viii. 1; Āsvalāyana Srauta Sūtra, i. 3, etc.; and a Mahaitareya in Āsvalāyana Gṛhya Sūtra, iii. 4, 4, etc.

Aitaśa, Aitaśāyana. See Etaśa, Etaśāyana. The Aitaśapralāpa, or 'Discourse of Aitaśa,' is a part of the Atharvaveda.¹

1 xx. 129-132. Cf. Brhaddevatā, viii. 101, with Macdonell's note.

Aiti-hāsika.—This term was applied to the people who explained the Vedic hymns by treating them as legendary history (Itihāsa), as Sieg¹ shows by the passages of the Nirukta,² where their views are opposed to those of the Nairuktas, who relied rather on etymology. Sieg³ also seems right in finding them in the Naidānas of the Nirukta:⁴ it is possible that their textbook was called the Nidāna.

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1 Die Sagenstoffe des Revedu, 13 et seq. 3 Op. cit., 29. 2 ii. 16; xii. 1, etc. 4 vi. 9; vii. 6.
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Aibhāvata, 'descendant of Ibhāvant,' is the patronymic of Pratīdarśa.¹

1 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xii. 8, 2, 3.

Airāvata, 'son of Irāvant,' is the patronymic of Dhṛtarāṣṭra, as a snake demon, in the Atharvaveda² and the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.³

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1 In the later literature Airāvata is the elephant of Indra: perhaps connected with this Vedic snake demon, a natural natural
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Ailūṣa, 'descendant of Ilūṣa,' is the patronymic of Kavaṣa.

Aișa-krta. See Sitibāhu.

Aiṣā-vīra.—The Satapatha Brāhmaṇa once¹ refers to the Aiṣā-vīras as officiating at a sacrifice, with the implication that they were bad sacrificers. Sāyaṇa regards the word as a proper name ('descendants of Eṣavīra'), denoting the members of a despised family. But Roth may be right in explaining the word both in the passage mentioned above and elsewhere as meaning 'weak'² or 'insignificant man.'³

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1 xi. 2, 7, 32.
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1,16; Kauşītaki Brāhmaņa, i. 1, where, however, Lindner's edition reads saiṣā vīra iva. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 228; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 45.

Aisumata, 'descendant of Isumant,' is the patronymic of Trāta in the Vaṃsa Brāhmaṇa.¹

1 Indische Studien, 4, 372.

0.

Ogaņa iš a word occurring only once, as a plural, in the Rigveda, where it appears to indicate persons hostile to the seer of the hymn, and apparently opposed to the Āryan religion. Ludwig regards the term as the proper name of a people, but Pischel thinks that it is merely an adjective meaning weak (ogana = ava-gaṇa), as in Pāli.

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    x. 89, 15.
    Translation of the Rigveda, 5, 209.
    Vedische Studien, 2, 191, 192.
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Otu in Vedic literature denotes the 'woof' in weaving, and corresponds to Tantu, 'the warp,' the roots $v\bar{a}$, 'to weave,' and tan, 'to stretch,' from which these two terms are derived, being used in parallel senses. In the process of weaving a shuttle (Tasara) was used. The 'weaver' is termed $v\bar{a}ya$, and the 'loom' veman. A wooden peg (Mayūkha) was used to

² In the St. Petersburg Dictionary,

³ In Böhtlingk's Dictionary, s.v. ('one who wishes to be a man, but is not'). Cf. Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ix. 5,

¹ Rv. vi. 9, 2, 3; Av. xiv. 2, 51; Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 1, 1, 4, etc.

² Rv. vi. 9, 2, etc.

³ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 80; Rv. x. 130, 2; Av. x. 7, 43, etc.

⁴ Rv. x. 26, 6, etc.

⁵ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 83.

stretch the web on, while lead was employed as a weight to extend it.6

The work of weaving was probably the special care of women.⁷ A metaphor in the Atharvaveda⁸ personifies Night and Day as two sisters weaving the web of the year, the nights serving as warp, the days as woof.

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    Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 80,
    Av. x. 7, 42; xiv. 2, 51, Cf. Rv. i. 92, 3.
    x. 7, 42; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa,
    ii. 5, 5, 3.
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Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 254, 255; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 5, 465.

Odana is a common expression denoting a mess, usually of grain cooked with milk (kṣīra-pūkam odanam). Special varieties are mentioned, such as the 'milk-mess' (kṣīraudana), the 'curd-mess' (dadhy-odana), the 'bean-mess' (mudgaudana), the 'sesame-mess' (tilaudana), the 'water-mess' (udaudana), the 'meat-mess' (māṃsaudana), the 'ghee-mess' (ghṛtaudana), etc.

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<sup>1</sup> Rv. viii. 69, 14, etc.; Av. iv. 14, 7, etc.
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² Rv. viii. 77, 10.

7 Ibid., vi. 4, 15.

9 Sankhayana Aranyaka, xii. 8.

Opaśa is a word of somewhat doubtful sense, occurring in the Rigveda,¹ the Atharvaveda,² and occasionally later.³ It probably means a 'plait' as used in dressing the hair, especially of women,⁴ but apparently, in earlier times,⁵ of men also. The goddess Sinīvālī is called svaupaśā,⁶ an epithet of doubtful sense, from which Zimmer⁷ conjectures that the wearing of

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1 x. 85, 8. Cf. i. 173, 6; viii. 14, 5; ix. 71, 1.
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7 Altindisches Leben, 264.

³ Śatapatha Brāhmana, ii. 5, 3, 4; xi. 5, 7, 5; Brhadāranyaka Upanişad, vi. 4, 13.

⁴ Brhadāraņyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 4,

⁵ Śānkhāyana Āranyaka, xii. 8.

⁶ Ibid.; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 4, 15.

⁸ Ibid., vi. 4, 16; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xi. 5, 7, 5; Śāńkhāyana Āraņyaka, xii. 8.

² vi. 138, 1. 2; ix. 3, 8, where it is applied metaphorically in describing the roof of a house.

³ Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa, iv. 1, 1.

⁴ Av. vi. 138, 1. 2.

⁵ Rv. i. 173, 6; viii. 14, 5.

⁶ Taittirīya Sanhitā, iv. 1, 5, 3; Maitrāyanī Sanhitā, ii. 7, 5; Vājasaneyi Sanhitā, xi, 56. The reading is uncertain. Bloomfield (see below) assumes sv-oβaśā to be the correct form ('having a fair oβaśa').

false plaits of hair was not unknown in Vedic times. What was the difference between the braids referred to in the epithets pṛthu-ṣṭuka,⁸ 'having broad braids,' and viṣita-ṣṭuka,⁹ 'having loosened braids,' and the Opaśa cannot be made out from the evidence available. Geldner¹⁰ thinks that the original sense was 'horn,' and that when the word applies to Indra¹¹ it means 'diadem.'

- 8 Rv. x, 86, 8.
- 9 Rv. i. 167, 5 (of Rodasī).
- Vedische Studien, 1, 131, quoting Pañcavimsa Brāhmana, xiii, 4, 3, where dvy-opaśāli is used of cattle; but the sense may be figurative.
- 11 Rv. viii. 14, 5.
- Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 538, 539; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 348.

Oṣadhi.—Roughly speaking, the vegetable world is divided in Vedic literature¹ between Oṣadhi or Vīrudh 'plants' and Vana or Vṛkṣa 'trees.' Oṣadhi is employed in opposition to Vīrudh to denote plants as possessing a healing power or some other quality useful to men, while Vīrudh is rather a generic term for minor vegetable growths, but sometimes,² when occurring beside Oṣadhi, signifies those plants which do not possess medicinal properties.

A list of the minor parts of which a plant is made up is given in the later Samhitās.³ It comprises the root $(m\bar{u}la)$, the panicle $(t\bar{u}la)$, the stem $(k\bar{a}nda)$, the twig $(val\hat{s}a)$, the flower (puspa), and the fruit (phala), while trees have, in addition, a corona (skandha), branches $(\hat{s}\bar{a}kh\bar{a})$, and leaves (parna). The Atharvaveda gives an elaborate, though not very intelligible, division of plants into those which expand $(pra-strnat\bar{i}k)$, are bushy $(stambin\bar{i}k)$, have only one sheath $(eka-\hat{s}ung\bar{a}k)$, are creepers $(pra-tanvat\bar{i}k)$, have many stalks $(am\hat{s}umat\bar{i}k)$, are

¹ Rv. x. 97 and passim. Oṣadhivanaspati is a frequent compound, from the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa (vi. 1, 1, 12) onwards. The medicinal properties of plants account for the epithet 'of manifold powers' (nānā-vīryā) applied to them in Av. xii, 1, 2.

² Taittirīva Samhitā, ii, 5, 3, 2,

³ *Ibid.*, vii. 3, 19, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxii. 28.

⁴ Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 3, .20, 1. Cf. Rv. i. 32, 5; Av. x. 7, 38.

⁵ viii. 7, 4, with Whitney's notes. Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 579; Henry, Les livres VIII. et IX. de l'Atharvavéda, 58 et seq.

jointed (kāṇḍinīḥ), or have spreading branches (vi-śākhāḥ). In the Rigveda⁶ plants are termed 'fruitful' (phalinīḥ), 'blossoming' (puṣpavatīḥ), and 'having flowers' (pra-sūvarīḥ).

6 x. 97, 3. 15. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 57.

AU.

Aukṣa-gandhi ('having the smell of bull's grease') appears in the Atharvaveda¹ as the name of an Apsaras, beside other names, of which Guggulū and Naladī clearly indicate plants. This name, therefore, presumably also denotes some sort of fragrant plant. Aukṣa in the same Saṃhitā² means 'bull's grease' (from ukṣan, 'bull').

¹ iv. 37. 3. ² ii. 36, 7.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 69; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 324; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 211, 212, and on Aukşa, ibid., 82, 83.

Augra-sainya, 'descendant of Ugrasena,' is the patronymic of King Yuddhāmśrauṣṭi in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (viii. 21).

Audanya, 'descendant of Udanya or Odana,' is the patronymic in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ of Muṇḍibha, who is credited with inventing an expiation for the crime of slaying a Brahmin. In the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa² the name appears in the form of Audanyava.

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1 xiii. 3, 5, 4.
2 iii. 9, 15, 3. Cf. St. Petersburg | Dictionary, s.v. Odana; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 341, n. 1.
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Audamaya is Weber's reading of the name of the Ātreya, who was Purohita of Anga Vairocana, according to the Aitareya Brāhmana. Aufrecht, however, in his edition more probably takes the correct form of the name to be Udamaya.

¹ Indische Studien, 1, 228. 2 viii, 22. Cf. St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. Udamaya.

Auda-vāhi, 'descendant of Udavāha,' appears in the first two Vaṃśas (lists of teachers) of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad¹ as a teacher of Bhāradvāja.

1 ii. 5, 20; iv. 5, 26 (in the Mādhyamdina recension).

Aud-umbarāyana, 'descendant of Udumbara,' is the patronymic of a grammarian in the Nirukta (i. 1).

Aud-dālaki, 'descendant of Uddālaka,' is the patronymic of the teacher variously called Asurbinda¹ or Kusurubinda,² and of Śvetaketu.³

Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, i. 75 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 23, 327).
 Şadvimša Brāhmaņa, i. 16; Paūcavimša Brāhmaņa, xxii. 15, 10.

³ Śatapatha Brāhmana, iii, 4, 3, 13; iv. 2, 5, 15. He is perhaps also meant in Katha Upanisad, i. 11.

Aud-bhāri, 'descendant of Udbhāra,' is the patronymic in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (xi. 8, 4, 6) of Khaṇḍika, teacher of Keśin.

Aupa-jandhani, 'descendant of Upajandhana,' is the patronymic of a teacher mentioned in the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad¹ as a pupil of Āsuri, and also² as a pupil of Sāyakāyana.

ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3 (in Vamsas).
 iv. 5, 27 (in the Mādhyamdina recension).

Aupa-tasvini, 'descendant of Upatasvina,' is the patronymic of Rāma in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (iv. 6, 1, 7).

Aupa-manyava, 'descendant of Upamanyu,' is the patronymic of various persons: see Kāmboja, Prācīnaśāla, Mahāśāla. The best known bearer of the name is the grammarian who disagreed with the onomatopoetic theory of the derivation of names, and who is mentioned by Yāska. An Aupamanyavīputra occurs in the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra² as a teacher.

1 i, 1; ii. 2. 6. 11, etc.

Aupara, 'descendant of Upara,' is the patronymic of Danda in the Taittiriya Samhitā (vi. 2, 9, 4).

Aupa-veśi, 'descendant of Upaveśa,' is the patronymic borne by Aruna, father of Uddālaka.¹

1 See Kāthaka Samhitā, xxvi. 10, and Aruņa.

Aupasvatī-putra, 'son of a female descendant of Upasvant' (?), is mentioned as a pupil of Pārāśarīputra in a Vaṃśa (list of teachers) of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.¹

1 vi. 5, 1 (only in the Kāņva recension).

Aupāvi ('descendant of Upāva') Jāna-śruteya ('descendant of Janaśruti'), appears in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ and the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā² as a sacrificer who used to offer the Vājapeya sacrifice and ascend to the other world.

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<sup>1</sup> v. 1, 1, 5. 7.

<sup>2</sup> i. 4, 5. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 222, 223.
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Aupoditi, 'descendant of Upodita,' is the patronymic applied in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā¹ to Tumiñja, and in the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra² to Gaupālāyana, son of Vyāghrapad, Sthapati ('general') of the Kurus. In the form of Aupoditeya, a metronymic from Upoditā, the name is found in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,³ where the Kāṇva text calls him Tumiñja Aupoditeya Vaiyāghrapadya.

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1 i. 7, 2, 1.
2 xx. 25.
3 i. 9, 3, 16.

Cf. Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, 271, n. 2.
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Aurna-vābha, 'descendant of Ūrņavābhi.' (1) This is the name of a pupil of Kauṇḍinya mentioned in a Vaṃśa (list of teachers) of the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.¹ (2) A teacher of this name is frequently referred to in the Nirukta. His explanations in two passages² agree with those of the Nairuktas

¹ iv. 5, 26 (Mādhyamdina recension).

² vii. 15; xii. 19.

or etymological school of interpreters of the Rigveda. In other passages³ he appears rather to belong to the school of the Aitihāsikas, who relied on traditional legends. He was thus probably, as Sieg⁴ suggests, an eclectic.

2 vi. 13; xii. I.

4 Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 13, n. 1.

Aurva, 'descendant of Uru or Urva,' appears in the Rigveda¹ in close connexion with Bhṛgu, being probably a Bhṛgu himself. As in one passage of the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,² the descendants of Aitaśa are called the worst of the Aurvas, while the parallel version of the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa³ calls them the worst of the Bhṛgus, the Aurvas must have been a branch of the larger family of the Bhṛgus. Aurva himself is said in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā⁴ to have received offspring from Atri. In the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa⁵ two Aurvas are referred to as authorities. See also Kutsa.

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1 viii. 102, 4.
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of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 54, reads ūrvau.

Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 173, n. 1.

Aulāna is a word occurring in a single passage of the Rigveda, where it may possibly be a patronymic of Śamtanu as a 'descendant of Ula.' Ludwig, however, conjectures that the reading should be 'Kaulāna.' Sieg³ regards Aulāna as a later descendant of Śamtanu, who utilized the story of Devāpi's rain-making as an introduction to his rain hymn.

kula-jātaḥ Śāmtanavaḥ, 'a descendant of Samtanu, born in the family of the Kurus.'

Auluņdya, 'descendant of Uluņda,' is the patronymic of Supratīta in the Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa.¹

1 Indische Studien, 4, 372.

² vi. 33.

³ xxx. 5.

⁴ vii. 1, 8, 1. 5 xxi. 16, 6. Hopkins, Transactions

¹ x 08 TT

² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 166.

³ Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 141.

⁴ Cf. Sayana on Rv. x. 98, 11: Kuru-

Ausija, 'descendant of Usij,' is a patronymic clearly applied to Kakṣīvant in the Rigveda.¹ It is also applied to Rjiśvan,² but Ludwig³ thinks that the correct reading of the passage in question is ausijasyarjiśvā, 'Rjiśvan, son of Ausija.' In one verse⁴ Ausija and Kakṣīvant are both mentioned, but in such a way that two different persons must apparently be meant. In other passages where the patronymic occurs alone, it is doubtful who is meant, or whether a proper name at all is intended.⁵ Kakṣīvant Ausija appears also in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa⁶ and elsewhere.

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<sup>1</sup> i. 18, 1.
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v. 41, 5; vi. 4, 6. Cf. St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

6 xiv. 11, 16. See Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, xv. 56, n., and Kakşīvant, n. 15.

Auṣṭrākṣi, 'descendant of Uṣṭrākṣa,' occurs as the patronymic of Sāti in the Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa.¹

1 Indische Studien, 4, 372. Cf. Weber, Indian Literature, 75.

K.

Kaṃsa, a word denoting a 'pot or vessel of metal,' occurs in the Atharvaveda and elsewhere.¹

1 Av. x. 10, 5; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, | vi. 3, 1, etc.; Nirukta, vii. 23; Śāńkhāviii. 10; Brhadāraņyaka Upaniṣad, | yana Āraṇyaka, xii. 8.

Kakara occurs in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās¹ as the name of a victim at the horse sacrifice (Aśvamedha). It probably denotes some 'sort of bird,' as rendered by the commentator Mahīdhara.²

¹ Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 14, 1; | ² On Vājasaneyi Samhitā, loc. cit. Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xx. 24. . | Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 94.

Kakutha, a word occurring in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā,¹ presumably denotes some kind of animal. According to Böhtlingk,² it is identical with Kakkaṭa.

² x. 99, 11.

³ Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 143, 149.

⁴ Rv. i. 112, 11.

⁵ Rv. i. 119, 9; 122, 4; iv. 21, 6. 7;

¹ iii. 14, 13.

² Dictionary, s.v.

Kakuha, a word occurring several times in the Rigveda, is understood by Roth² to designate part of a chariot, perhaps the seat. Ludwig,3 again, regards it in one passage4 as the proper name of a Yādava prince who took spoil from Tirindira, the Parśu, but this view is hardly probable.⁵ It is, on the whole, most likely that the word always means 'chief,' 'pre-eminent,' being applied as an epithet to horses, chariots, princes, etc.6 This is the only sense given by Grassmann,7 and later adopted by Roth.8

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1 i. 46, 3; 181 5; 184, 3; ii. 34, 11;
iii. 54, 14; v. 73, 7; 75, 4; viii. 6, 48.
  2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
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Kakkata denotes the 'crab' in the Yajurveda Samhitās,1 being a Prākritized form of Karkaṭa, which is common in the later literature.2 Roth,3 however, takes the word to mean a bird, and compares Kakara. See also Kakutha.

Kakşa is the name of two men mentioned as teachers in a Vamsa (list of teachers) of the Jaiminīya Upanişad Brāhmaņa. One is Kakşa Vārakya, pupil of Prosthapada Vārakya,1 and the other Kaksa Vārāki2 or Vārakya,3 pupil of Dakşa Kātyāyani Ātreya. See also Urukakṣa.

Kakşīvant is the name of a Rşi mentioned frequently in the Rigveda,1 and occasionally elsewhere.2 He appears to have been a descendant of a female slave named Usij.3 He must have been a Pajra by family, as he bears the epithet Pajriya,4

³ Translation of the Rigveda, 2, 182; 3, 160, 161; 5, 142.

⁴ viii. 6, 48.

⁵ Weber, Episches im vedischen Ritual. 36, 37.

⁶ So certainly in Rv. viii. 45, 14; ix. 67, 8; Taittiriya Samhita, iii. 3, 3, 1. 2, and often in the older form kakubha.

⁷ In his Lexicon, s.v.

⁸ In Böhtlingk's Dictionary, s.v.

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 15, 1 (where Weber has katkata); Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 32.

² Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 95.

³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

¹ i. 18, 1; 51, 13; 112, 11; 116, 7; 117, 6; 126, 3; iv. 26, 1; viii. 9, 10; ix. 74, 8; x. 25, 10; 61, 16.

² Av. iv. 29, 5, and passages noted | Brāhmaṇa, xiv. 11, 16. below.

³ Rv. i. 18, 1; perhaps also i. 112, 11, but Ausija may there be a separate name (see Ausija). Cf. Pañcavimsa

⁴ Rv. i. 116, 7; 117, 6.

and his descendants are called Pajras.5 In a hymn of the Rigveda⁶ he celebrates the prince Svanaya Bhāvya, who dwelt on the Sindhu (Indus), as having bestowed magnificent gifts on him; and the list of Nārāśaṃsas (' Praises of Heroes') in the Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra7 mentions one by Kakṣīvant Auśija in honour of Svanaya Bhāvayavya. In his old age he obtained as a wife the maiden Vrcaya.8 He appears to have lived to be a hundred,9 the typical length of life in the Vedas. He seems always to be thought of as belonging to the past, and in a hymn of the fourth book of the Rigveda 10 he is mentioned with the semi-mythical Kutsa and Kavi Uśanas. Later, also, he is a teacher of bygone days.11

In Vedic literature he is not connected with Dirghatamas beyond being once mentioned along with him in a hymn of the Rigveda.12 But in the Brhaddevatā 13 he appears as a son of

Dīrghatamas by a slave woman, Uśij.

Weber 14 considers that Kaksīvant was originally a Ksatriya, not a Brāhmaṇa, quoting in favour of this view the fact that he is mentioned beside kings like Para Āṭṇāra, Vītahavya Śrāyasa, and Trasadasyu Paurukutsya. 15 But that these are all kings is an unnecessary assumption: these persons are mentioned in the passages in question undoubtedly only as famous men of old, to whom are ascribed mythical sacrificial performances, and who thus gained numerous sons.

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5 Rv. i. 126, 4.
6 i. 126.
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14 Episches im vedischen Ritual, 22-25.

15 Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 6, 5, 3; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxii. 3; Pancavimša Brāhmana, xxv. 16, 3. Cf. xiv. 11, 16.

Cf. Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 221, 236, n. 1; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 102; Geldner, Rigveda, Kommentar, 23, 24.

Kanka is the name of a bird, usually taken to mean 'heron'1 but, at any rate in some passages, rather denoting some bird of prey.2 It first appears in the Yajurveda Samhitās.3

| (kańka-cit, an altar 'piled in the form of a 1 Zimmer, Allindisches Leven, 92.
2 Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii, 14, 12, 52, 31; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii, 14, 12, 52, 31; s.v. Cf. Sānkhāyana Āraņyaka, xii. 13. Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 14, 12; Sāma.

⁷ xvi. 4, 5.

⁸ Rv. i. 51, 13.

⁹ Rv. ix. 74, 8. 10 iv. 26, I.

¹¹ Av. iv. 29, 5; xviii. 3, 15; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, i. 21, 6. 7; Jaiminīya Upanisad Brāhmana, ii. 6, 11.

¹² viii. 9, 10.

¹³ iv. 11 et seq.

¹ Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 92.

Kankata is the name of an animal mentioned once in the Rigveda.1 According to Sāyaṇa it is a destructive beast; perhaps, as Grassmann renders it, a 'scorpion.'

1 i. 191, 1. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 98.

Kankatīya is the name of a family said in the Satapatha Brāhmaņa1 to have learned from Śāndilya the piling up of the sacrificial fire (agni-cayana). In the Apastamba Śrauta Sūtra2 a Kankati Brāhmana, no doubt the textbook of the school, is referred to. It may have been identical with the Chagaleya Brāhmaņa, cited in the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra.3

> 3 xxv. 5. Cf. Caland, Über das rituelle 1 ix. 4, 4, 17. Sūtra des Baudhayana, 40. 2 xiv. 20, 4.

Kanka-parvan ('heron-jointed'?), a term occurring once in the Atharvaveda,1 is applied to a snake, meaning perhaps 'scorpion.' As the Paippalada recension has a different reading (anga-parvanah), the passage may be corrupt.

Atharvaveda, 426; Bloomfield, Hymns

1 vii. 56, 1. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches of the Atharvaveda, 553; Böhtlingk, Leben, 94; Whitney, Translation of the Dictionary, s v.

Kata denotes a 'mat,' which was 'made of reeds' (vaitasa). The maker of mats from reeds (bidala-kārī) is mentioned in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā,2 and the process of splitting reeds for the purpose is referred to in the Atharvaveda.3

1 Taittirīya Samhitā. v. 3, 12, 2. mentary. Bidala-kāra is read in the Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xiii. 3, Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 5, 1. Cf. Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xiii. 3, ³ vi. 138, 5. 2 xxx. 8, with Mahidhara's Com- | Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 255.

Kantakī-kārī, 'worker in thorns,' is one of the victims at the human sacrifice (Puruṣamedha) in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā.1 No doubt the thorns were cut up and used to plait mats (Kata) or to stuff cushions.

1 xxx, 8. The Taittiriya Brahmana, iii.4, 5, 1, has kantaka-kara. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 255.

Kanva is the name of an ancient Rsi repeatedly referred to in the Rigveda and later.1 His sons and descendants,2 the Kanvas, are also often mentioned, especially in the eighth book of the Rigveda, the authorship of that book, as well as of part of the first, being attributed to this family. A descendant of Kanva is also denoted by the name in the singular, either alone³ or accompanied by a patronymic, as Kanva Nārṣada⁴ and Kanva Śrāyasa,5 besides in the plural the Kanvas Sauśravasas.6 The Kanva family appears to have been connected with the Atri family,7 but not to have been of great importance.8 In one passage of the Atharvaveda9 they seem to be definitely regarded with hostility.

1 Rv. i. 36, 8, 10. 11. 17. 19; 39, 7.9; 47, 5; 112, 5; 117, 18; 118, 7; 139, 9; v. 41, 4; viii. 5, 23. 25; 7, 18; 8, 20; 49, 10; 50, 10; x. 71, 11; 115, 5; 150, 5; Av. iv. 37, 1; vii. 15, 1; xviii. 3, 15; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvii. 74; Pañcavimsa Brāhmana, viii. 2, 2; ix. 2, 6; Kauşītaki Brāhmaņa, xxviii. 8. Kaņvavat occurs in Rv. viii. 6, II; 52, 8; Av. ii. 32, 3; Kanva-mant in Rv. viii. 2, 22.

² As Kanvāh (in the plural), Rv. i. 14, 2. 5; 37, 1. 14; 44, 8; 46, 9; 47, 2. 4-10; 49, 4; viii. 2, 16; 3, 16; 4, 2. 3; 5, 4; 6, 3. 18. 21. 31. 34. 47; 7. 32; 8, 3; 9, 14; 32, 1; 33, 3; 34, 4; as Kaņvasya sūnavaļi, Rv. i. 45. 5; as putrāh, viii. 8, 4. 8; as Kānvāyanāh, viii. 55, 4. Kānva is found in viii. 1, 8; 2, 40; 4, 20; 7, 19; 9, 3, 9; 10, 2.

3 Eg., Rv. i. 48, 4; viii. 34, 1, and probably elsewhere.

4 Rv. i. 117, 8; Av. iv. 19, 2; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 150.

5 Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 4, 7, 5; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxi. 8; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 3, 9.

6 Kāthaka Samhitā, xiii. 12. There is also Vatsa Kānva in Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 11, 20.

7 Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 214.

8 Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 3, 285. Cf. 1, 207, 438.

9 Av. ii. 25. Cf. Vārttika on Pāņini, iii. 1, 14; Bergaigne, Religion Védique, 2, 465; Hillebrandt, op. cit., 1, 207; Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 110.

Cf. Oldenberg, op. cit., 216 et seq.; Ludwig, op. cit., 3, 105.

Kathā.—The later use of this word1 in the sense of a 'philosophical discussion' appears in the Chandogya Upanişad.2

2 i. 8, 1: hantodgithe katham vadama,

1 Colebrooke, Miscellaneous Essays, I, | 'let us begin a discussion regarding the Udgitha.'

Kadrū, a word occurring only once in the Rigveda, is interpreted by Ludwig2 as the name of a priest, but it more probably means a Soma vessel.3

2 Translation of the Rigvede, 3, 162. 1 viii. 45, 26. 3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Kanaknaka, a word occurring once in the Atharvaveda,¹ either denotes a poison or is an adjective qualifying $k\bar{a}nd\bar{a}-visa$, a species of poison.

1 x. 4, 22. Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns | Translation of the Atharvaveda, of the Atharvaveda, 604; Whitney, 578.

Kanā, Kanyā.—Both these words, of which the former is very rare, while the latter is the normal term from the Rigveda onwards, denote 'maiden' or 'young woman.' It is doubtful whether Kanīnakā (accented on the final syllable) has this meaning, or only denotes the pupil of the eye, which is the sense of kanīnakā or kanīnikā (both accented on the antepenultimate) in the later Samhitās and the Brāhmaņas. See also Strī.

1 Rv. x. 61, 5, etc.

² i. 123, 10; 161, 5; iii. 23, 10, etc.; Av. i. 14, 2; xi. 5, 18; xii. 1, 25, etc.

³ Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., cites in this sense Rv. iv. 32, Rv. viii. 23; x. 40, 9; Nirukta, iv. 15; but xiv. 2, 52.

neither of the Rv. passages is at all clear.

4 See Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 401; Keith, Aitareya Āraņyaka, 207. Other rare forms are kanyanā, Rv. viii. 35, 5; kanyalā, Av. v. 5, 3; xiv. 2, 52.

Kapanā, from its solitary occurrence in the Rigveda, appears to mean a 'worm' that destroys the leaves of trees, and is so interpreted in the Nirukta.

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1 v. 54, 6.
2 vi. 4. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 97; Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 330.
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Kaparda, 'braid,' Kapardin, 'wearing braids.' These words refer to the Vedic custom of wearing the hair in braids or plaits. Thus a maiden is said to have her hair in four plaits (catuṣ-kapardā),¹ and the goddess Sinīvālī is described as 'wearing fair braids' (su-kapardā).² Men also wore their hair in this style, for both Rudra³ and Pūṣan⁴ are said to have done so, while the Vasiṣṭhas⁵ were distinguished by wearing their hair in a plait on the right (dakṣiṇatas-kaparda). The opposite was to wēar one's hair 'plain' (pulasti).6 See also Opaśa.

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1 Rv. x. 114, 3.
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² Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xi. 56.

³ Rv. i. 114, 1. 5; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvi. 10. 29. 43. 48. 59.

⁴ Rv. vi. 55, 2; ix. 67. 11.

⁵ Rv. vii. 33, 1. Cf. 83, 8.

⁶ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvi. 43.

Cf. Zimmer, Altivdisches Leben, 264, 265; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, v. 462; Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 424.

- 1. Kapi, 'monkey,' occurs only once in the Rigveda with reference to Vṛṣā-kapi, the 'Man-ape,' in the dialogue of Indra and Indrani in the presence of Vṛṣākapi. There the ape is termed the 'tawny' (harita). In the Atharvaveda2 the monkey is mentioned several times as hairy, and an enemy of dogs. That the ape was tamed appears from its position in the Vṛṣākapi hymn, and from the mention, in the Taittirīya Samhitā,3 of a Mayu as belonging to the forest. See also Mayu, Markata, and Purusa Hastin.
- 1 x. S6, 5. Cf. Oldenberg, Religion des V.da, 174; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 2, 22 et seq.; von Schroeder, Mysterium und Mimus, 304 et seq.; Schirmeisen, Die Arischen Göttergestalten, 218 et seg.; Tilak, Orion, 170-197.

2 iii. 9, 4; iv. 32, 11; vi. 49, 1. Cf. also Chandogya Upanisad, i. 6, 7 (kupy-āsa, 'seat of ar. ape').

3 iv. 2, 10, 1. Cf. Zimmer, Altin-

disches Leben, 85, 86.

2. Kapi is, according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary, another name for Lusa Khārgali in the Kāthaka Samhitā (xxx. 2), but the name appears rather to be Luśākapi.

Kapinjala, the name of the 'francoline partridge' or 'hazelcock,' is found in all the Yajurveda Samhitās,1 and occasionally later.2

1 Taittiriya Samhita, ii. 5, 1, 1; v. 5, 16. 1: Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 1; Kāthaka Samhitā, xii. 10; Vājasaneyi Samhita, xxiv. 20. 38.

2 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, i. 6, 3, 3;

v. 5, 4, 4; xiii. 5, 1, 13; Jaiminīya Brahmana, i. 154, 2 (Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 181).

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 91.

Kapila appears in the Śvetāśvatara Upaniṣad¹ as a teacher. according to Weber 2 and Garbe,3 who think that the expression kapila rsik there refers to the founder of the Sānkhva philosophy. But this is doubtful.4

2 Indische Studien, 1, 24 et seq.; 5, 412;

Indian Literature, 236.

4 Max Müller, Sacred Books of the

East, 2, xli, and Deussen, in his translation (Sechzig Upanishads, 304), do not take the word as a teacher's name. The latter renders kapila rsik, by 'the red sage, as referring to Hiranyagarbha.

³ Sānkhya Philosophie, 27 et seq.; Translation of the Sankhyatattvakaumudī, 531.

Kapi-vana Bhauvāyana is mentioned as a teacher in the Yajurveda Samhitās¹ and the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.² A rite called Kapivana's Dvyaha ('ceremony lasting two days') is also referred to in the Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra.³

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<sup>1</sup> Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, i. 4, 57 Kāthaka Samhitā, xxxii. 2.
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² xx. 13, 4.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 24; 3, 473; Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 55, n. 2; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 157.

Kapota is the name of a bird, probably the 'pigeon' (its sense in the later language), occurring from the Rigveda onwards.¹ It is associated in some passages² with the owl (Ulūka) as a messenger of Nirṛti ('dissolution,' 'misfortune'). This aspect of the pigeon as a bird of evil omen is probably based on an ancient belief which is also found beyond the confines of India.³

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    Rv. i. 30, 4; Av. xx. 135, 12;
    Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 4; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 23, 38.
    Rv. x. 165, 1-5; Av. vi. 29, 2.
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³ Cf. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 253.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 89; St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Kabandha Ātharvaṇa is mentioned in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad¹ along with Sudhanvan Āṅgirasa, as a teacher, but is semi-mythical. His son was Vicārin Kābandhi.

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1 vi. 7, 1. Cf. also Gopatha Brāh- Mythologie, 2, 176, n. 4; Weber, Indian maṇa, i. 2, 9, 18; Hillebrandt, Vedische Literature, 149.
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Kama-dyū appears once in the Rigveda¹ as the wife of Vimada. She is probably identical with the 'maiden' (yoṣā) of Purumitra, no doubt his daughter. She is elsewhere² referred to in connexion with Vimada, who appears to have taken her for his bride against the will of her father.

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1 x. 65, 12. | Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 2 i, 117, 20; x. 39, 7. | 310.
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Kambala denotes in the Atharvaveda¹ a 'woollen coverlet' or 'blanket.'

1 xiv. 2, 66. 67. Cf. Nirukta, ii. 2.

³ xxv. 2, 3. Cf. Āśvalāyana Srauta Sūtra, x. 2.

Kamboja.—Yāska, in the Nirukta,¹ refers to the speech of the Kambojas as differing from that of the other Āryas. The Kambojas were later settled to the north-west of the Indus, and are known as Kambujiya in the old Persian inscriptions. A teacher, Kāmboja Aupamanyava, pupil of Madragāra, is mentioned in the Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa.² This points to a possible connexion of the Madras, or more probably the Uttara Madras, with the Kambojas, who probably had Iranian as well as Indian affinities.

1 ii. 2.

² Indische Studien, 4, 372.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 102; Weber, Indische Streifen, 2, 493; 3, 384; Indische Studien, 10, 7; Episches im vedischen Ritual, 45; Max Müller, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 7, 373. On the relation of Indian and Iranian, see also Jacobi, Journal of the Royal-Asiatic Society, 1909, 721 et seq.; 1910, 457 et seq.; Oldenberg, ibid., 1095 et seq.; Keith, ibid., 1100 et seq.; Kennedy, ibid., 1107 et seq.; and see Parsu.

Karañja, a word which in the Sūtras and later denotes the tree *Pmgamia glabra*, occurs only twice in the Rigveda¹ as the name of a foe of Indra, but whether a demon or a man² is intended remains uncertain.

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1 i. 53, 8; x. 48, 8.
2 Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 63;
Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda,
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3, 149; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 3, 292.

Karambha is the name, from the Rigveda onwards, of a kind of porridge made of grain (Yava), which was unhusked, parched slightly, and kneaded. It was the especial sacrificial portion of Pūṣan, no doubt in his capacity of an agricultural deity. Karambha was also made of barley (Upavāka) or of sesame (Tirya).

1 Rv. i. 187, 16; iii. 52, 7; vi. 56, 1; 57, 2; viii. 102, 2; Av. iv. 7, 2, 3; vi. 16, 1; Taittirīya Samhitā, iii. 1, 10, 2; vi. 5, 11, 4, etc.

² Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 5, 2, 14; iv. 2, 4, 18. Cf. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 317; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, 395, n. 1. 3 Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 22.

⁴ Av. iv. 7, 3, but see Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 377: Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 155.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 270.

Karikrata denotes, according to Zimmer, a snake in the Atharvaveda.²

1 Altindisches Leben, 95

Karīra, the name of a leafless shrub, Capparis aphylla, or its fruit, first appears in the Taittirīya Samhitā.¹

1 ii. 4, 9, 2; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xi. 11; xxxvi. 7; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 5, 2, 11.

Karīṣa denotes 'dry cow dung' in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.¹ The Atharvaveda² shows that the value of the natural manure of animals in the fields was appreciated.

- r. Karkandhu is the ordinary word for 'jujube,' the tree (Zizyphus jujuba) and the fruit, from the Yajurveda Samhitās onwards. The berry is red (rohita). Compare Kuvala and Badara, which denote the fruit.
- 1 Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xii. 10; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 11, 2; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xix. 23. 91; xxi. 32; xxiv. 2; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 5, 4, 10; xii. 7,
- 2. Karkandhu is only the name borne by a protégé of the Aśvins in the Rigveda (i. 112, 6). Its identity with the word for jujube indicates that the latter, though not otherwise mentioned there, was known at the time of the Rigveda.

Karkari, a musical instrument, probably the 'lute,' occurs from the Rigveda onwards.¹ The Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā² mentions cattle branded on the ears with a mark resembling a lute (karkari-karnyaḥ).

1 Rv. ii. 43, 3; Av. iv. 37, 4. Cf. | ² iv. 2, 9. Cf. Delbrück, Gurupūjāxx. 132, 3. 8. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 289.

² x. 4, 13. The Paippalāda version has Kanikrada.

Karkī may denote in one passage of the Atharvaveda¹ a 'white cow,' according to the suggestion of Roth.²

of the Atharvaveda, 414.

1 iv. 38, 6. 7. Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns | 2 St. Petersburg Dictionary and Böhtlingk's Dictionary, s.v.

Karna-śobhana denotes an 'ornament for the ear' in the Rigveda, apparently for the use of men. Some deity is called 'gold-eared' in another passage of the Rigveda. Hopkins considers the use of ear-rings later than that of necklets and wristlets.

1 viii. 78, 3.
2 i. 122, 14. See also i. 64, 10.
3 Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 35.
Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 262.

Karņa-śravas Āṅgirasa is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xiii. 11, 14) as a seer of Sāmans or chants, the same tale being told of him as of Dāvasu.

Karmāra, the 'smith,' is several times mentioned with approval in the Vedic Samhitās.¹ In the Atharvaveda² smiths appear with fishermen (dhīvānaḥ) and chariot-builders (ratha-kārāḥ), all being classified as clever workers (manīṣiṇaḥ): possibly a quasi-caste of smiths was already developing from the guild organization that probably existed.³

Little is known of the smith's methods of work and of his tools. No doubt he smelted $(dhm\bar{a})$ the ore in the fire; hence he is called $dhm\bar{a}tr$, the 'smelter.' Mention is also made of

1 Rv. x. 72, 2; Av. iii. 5, 6; Kāthaka Samhitā, xvii. 13; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 9, 5; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvi. 27; xxx. 7. Cf. karmāra, Rv. ix. 112, 2; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 3, 1.

² iii. 5, 6. The exact sense of the passage is doubtful. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 252; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 144; and Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 92,

take the reference to be to 'skilled chariot-makers' (dhīvāno ratha-kārāļ), and 'clever smiths,' but this is perhaps less likely. The commentator interprets dhīvānaḥ as 'fishermen' (in the later language dhīvara means both a 'clever man' and a 'fisherman').

³ Cf. Fick, Die sociale Gliederung, 182.

⁴ Rv. v. 9, 5.

his bellows of birds' feathers.5 He made metal vessels (gharma ayasmaya)6 to be put on the fire: even the Soma cup could occasionally be made of hammered metal (ayo-hata).7

- ⁵ Rv. ix. 112, 2. 6 Rv. v. 30, 15.
- ⁷ Rv. ix. 1, 2.

Cf. Zimmer, op. cit., 252, 253; Weber, Indische Studien, 17, 196 et seq.; Über den Rājasūya, 19 et seq.

Karvara, a word found in one passage of the Atharvaveda,1 seems to mean some kind of fish2 caught by a fisherman (pauñjistha).

1 x. 4, 19. Whitney, Translation of the Atharva-² Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 96; veda, 578.

Karsū, a rare word found in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa,1 denotes a 'furrow' or 'trench.'

1 i. 8, 1, 3; xiii. 8, 3, 10. Cf. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 283.

Kalavinka, a name of the 'sparrow,' is found in the Yajurveda Samhitās,1 and occasionally later.2

- Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 1; Kāthaka Samhitā, xii. 10; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 20. 31.
 - ² Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 3, 4;

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 5, 1, 2; | v. 5, 4, 5; Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 154, 3 (Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 181). Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 91.

Kalaśa is, from the Rigveda onwards,1 a common word for 'pot' or 'jar,' probably either formed of a gourd or made of clay (unburnt or baked), as we know that both kinds of pot were in use.2 The wooden Soma tub (drona-kalaśa) is frequently referred to in the ritual. See also Kośa.

- 1 Rv. i. 117, 12; iii. 32, 15; iv. 27, 5; | 32, 19, etc.; Av. iii. 12, 7; ix. 1, 6; 4, 15; xviii. 4, 13, etc. In Rv. x. 32, 9, the word, according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary, is used as a proper name, but the passage is very doubtful.
- ² Av. iv. 17, 4; Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 1, 8, 1; iv. 1, 5, 4; v. 1, 7, 2; Vāja-

saneyi Samhitā, i. 22; xi. 59. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 253; Eggel. ing, Sacred Books of the East, 26, 257; Oertel, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 185, n. 3; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 183 et seq.

Kalā denotes a fractional part, normally 'one-sixteenth,' in the Rigveda¹ and later.² It is often mentioned in connexion with Sapha, 'one-eighth.'

¹ viii. 47, 17. ² Av. vi. 96, 3; xix. 57, 1; Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 1, 10, 1; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 7, 7; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 3, 3, 1; xii. 8, 3, 13, etc.; Nirukta, xi. 12. Cf. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 16, 278; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 259.

1. Kali. See Akşa.

2. Kali occurs in the Rigveda, twice in the singular as the name of a protégé of the Asvins, and once in the plural. The persons meant in the latter passage seem to be different from the former one. The Kalis are once mentioned in the Atharvaveda beside the Gandharvas.

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<sup>1</sup> i. 112, 15; x. 39, 8.
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are fond of dice, and bestow luck at play. See Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 135.

Cf. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 89; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 163.

Kalpa in the Taittirīya Āranyaka (ii. 10) seems to denote Kalpa Sūtra.

Kalmāṣa-grīva ('speckled-neck') is the name of a snake in the Atharvaveda.¹

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1 iii. 27, 5 (where the Paippaläda recension has kulmāṣa-); xii. 3, 59-
Cf. Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 10, 2.
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Kalyāṇa is the name, in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa,¹ of an Āṅgirasa who saw the Aurṇāyava Sāman.

viii. 66, 15.
 x. 10, 13.

⁴ These Kalis may be connected with dicing, as in the Atharvaveda the Apsarases, the wives of the Gandharvas,

¹ xii. 11, 10. Cf. Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 68, n. 2.

Kavaca denotes a 'corselet' or 'breastplate' in the Atharvaveda¹ and later.² There is nothing to show whether it was made of metal, but that it was so is quite possible (see Varman). The Atharvaveda³ refers to a 'corselet-strap' (kavaca-pāśa), which may point to a linen corselet such as those known to Herodotus.⁴

1 Av. xi. 10, 22 (kavacin).

Kayaşa]

- ² Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, xiii, 2, 2, 7; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vii. 19, 2; Nirukta, v. 25 (kavaca); Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, xiii. 1, 6, 3; 4, 1, 5; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, iii. 48; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvi. 45 (kavacin).
- 3 xi. 10, 22.
- 4 Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 129, and Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 659, seem to recognize coats of mail only.

Kavaşa is mentioned in a hymn of the Rigveda¹ as one of those whom, together with the Druhyu king, Indra overthrew for the Trtsus. The Anukramani (Index) also attributes to him the authorship of several hymns of the Rigveda, including two (x. 32. 33) that deal with a prince Kuruśravana and his descendant Upamaśravas. There seems no reason to doubt this attribution, which is accepted by both Zimmer² and Geldner.8 The former holds that Kavaşa was the Purohita of the joint tribes named Vaikarna, in whom he sees the Kuru-Krivi (Pañcāla) peoples, and that Kavaşa in that capacity is mentioned in the Rigveda as representative of those peoples. He also suggests that the language of Rigveda x. 33, 4 is best explained by the reduced position in which the Kuru-Krivis found themselves on their defeat by the Trtsus. Ludwig,4 on the other hand, thinks that Kavaşa was the priest of the five peoples. Geldner⁵ holds that Kavaşa was the Purohita of Kuruśravana, by whose son, Upamaśravas, he was ill-treated. and that he composed Rigveda x. 33 to deprecate the anger of his royal master. Hopkins6 thinks that he was a king.

In the Brahmanas of the Rigveda7 mention is made of

- 1 vii. 18, 12.
- 2 Altindisches Leben, 127.
- 3 Vedische Studien, 2, 150.
- 4 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 139.
- 5 T.oc. cit
- 6 Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 261, 263.
- 7 Aitareya Brāhmaņa, ii. 19; Kauşītaki Brāhmaņa, xii. 1. 3.
- Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 3, 459; Lanman, Sanskrit Reader, 386, 387; Pargiter, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1910, 50.

Kavaşa Ailūşa, who was a Brāhmaņa born of a female slave, and was reproached on this ground by the other Rsis. He is possibly identical with the Kavaşa of the Rigveda.

Kaśa is the name of an unknown animal mentioned as a victim at the horse sacrifice in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās.¹

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 17, 1; 38. Cf. Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 7. 18, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 26; Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 84.

Kasīkā is the name of an animal mentioned once in the Rigveda,¹ and interpreted as 'weasel' by the commentator Sāyaṇa. Fick² suggests that the meaning is 'pole - cat.' Geldner³ takes it as 'female ichneumon.'

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1 i. 126, 5.

2 Bezzenberger, Beiträge, 3, 165;
Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 247.
Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 84;
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Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 57.

3 Rigveda, Glossar, 44.

Kaśipu denotes a 'mat' or 'cushion' made, according to the Atharvaveda,¹ by women from reeds (naḍa), which they crushed for the purpose by means of stones. On the other hand, the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa² refers to a mat as made of gold.

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<sup>1</sup> vi. 138, 5. <sup>2</sup> xiii. 4, 3, 1.
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Kaśu is the name of a prince mentioned in the Rigveda with the patronymic Caidya, or descendant of Cedi, as a generous patron of the singer, who praises the liberality of the Cedis. Neither this king nor the Cedis appear again in Vedic literature.

1 viii. 5. 37. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 129.

Kaśo-jū occurs once in the Rigveda (i. 112, 14) either as a proper name or as an epithet of Divodāsa. The sense of the word is quite uncertain.

Kaśyapa, a word denoting 'tortoise,' occurs in the Atharvaveda¹ and often later.²

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 18, 86; Bloomfield, American Journal of Philology, 17, 403.

iv. 20, 7.
 Maitrāyanī Sanhitā, iii. 14, 18;
 Vājasaneyi Sanhitā, xxiv. 37; Satapatha Brāhmana, vii. 5, 1, 5; Aitareya Brāhmana, ii. 6.

Kasyapa is the name of a sage who is mentioned only once in the Rigveda,1 but is a common figure in the later Samhitas.2 He is always of a mythical character, as belonging to the distant past. According to the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,3 he anointed King Viśvakarman Bhauvana, and in the Upanisads 4 he is mentioned as a Rsi. The Kasyapas appear in connexion with Janamejaya in the Aitareva Brāhmana.5

1 ix. 114, 2.

² Sāmaveda, i. 1, 2, 4, 10; 4, 2, 3, 2 (but in these passages the St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., accepts the sense of a divine being, identical with Prajapati); Av. i. 14, 4; ii. 33, 7; iv. 20, 7; 29, 3; 37, 1; Maitrayanī Samhitā, iv. 2, 9; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, iii. 62.

3 viii. 21; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xiii. 7, 1, 15.

4 Brhadaranyaka Upanisad, ii. 2, 6; Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, iv. 3, 1 (in a quotation).

5 vii. 27. Cf. Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 235, n. I.

Kaśyapa Naidhruvi is mentioned as a teacher in the last Vamśa (list of teachers) of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.1

¹ Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 4, 33 (Mādhyaṇdina=vi. 5, 3, Kāṇva).

Kaşkaşa designates a kind of worm in the Atharvaveda.1 1 v. 23, 7. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 98.

Kasarnīla is the name of a kind of snake in the Atharvaveda.1 It occurs also in the form Kasarņīra, personified as the seer Kasarņīra Kādraveya in the Taittirīya Sāmhita.2

1 x. 4, 5, where the Paippalada | Leben, 98; Bloomfield, Hymns of the recension has kvasarsnīla. 2 i. 5, 4, 1. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches

Atharvaveda, 607.

Ka-stambhī denotes in the Satapatha Brāhmaņa a piece of wood used as a prop for the end of a wagon-pole to rest on.

1 i. 1, 2, 9. Cf. Caland and Henry, L'Agnistoma, 49; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, 14, n. 1.

Kahoda Kausītaki1 or Kausītakeya2 is mentioned in the Satapatha Brāhmaņa,1 the Brhadāranyaka Upanisad,2 and the Śānkhāyana Āraņyaka,1 as a teacher, contemporary with Yājñavalkya. Cf. Kāhodi.

² Brhadaranyaka Upanisad, iii. 5, 1. VOL. I.

¹ Satapatha Brāhmaņa, ii. 4, 3, 1; Sānkhāyana Āraņyaka, xv.

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Kākambīra is the name in the Rigveda¹ of a useful tree of some kind.

1 vi. 48, 17. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 62.

Kākṣa-seni is the patronymic ('son of Kakṣasena') of Abhipratārin in the Pancaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xiv. 1, 12).

Kākṣīvata. See Nodhas.

Kāthaka, the name of the recension of the Black Yajurveda belonging to the school of the Kathas, is mentioned in the Nirukta¹ of Yāska and in the Anupada Sūtra.² The Samhitā which bears the name has been in part edited by L. v. Schroeder.³

1 x. 4.

² iii. 11; vii. 11.

Two volumes have so far appeared, the first containing i-xviii, the second xix-xxx. Cf. Indische Studien, 1, 44; 3, 451; von Schroeder, Kāthaka Sam-

hitā, 1900, 1909; Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 49, 145-171; Die Tübinger Katha-Handschriften, Vienna, 1898; Zwei Handschriften der K.K. Hofbibliothek in Wien mit Fragmenten des Kāthaka, Vienna, 1896.

Kāṇṭhe-viddhi ('descendant of Kaṇṭheviddha') is mentioned as a teacher in the Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa.¹

1 Indische Studien, 4, 382.

Kāṇḍa-vīṇā, the name of a musical instrument, a kind of lute made out of joints of reed, which is mentioned as used at the Mahāvrata ceremony in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā.¹

1 xxxiv, 5 (Indische Studien, 3, 477). | Kātyāyana Srauta Sūtra, xiii. 3, 16; Cf. Lātyāyana Srauta Sūtra, iv. 2, 6; | Sānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvii. 3, 12,

Kāṇḍviya is mentioned as an Udgātṛ in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 10, 2).

Kāṇva. See Kaṇva: among others, Devātithi, Medhātithi, Vatsa, were prominent members of the Kaṇva family.

Kāṇvī-putra is mentioned as a pupil of Kāpīputra in the last Vaṃśa (list of teachers) of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.¹

1 vi. 5, 1 (Kāņva recension).

Kāṇvāyana ('descendant of Kaṇva') and Kāṇvyāyana ('descendant of Kāṇvya') are patronymics occurring in the Rigveda¹ and the Ṣaḍviṃśa Brāhmaṇa² respectively.

1 viii. 55, 4.

2 Indische Studien, 1, 38; Sayana on Rv. i. 51, 1; viii. 2, 40.

Kātyāyani. See Dakṣa.

Kātyāyanī is the name of one of the two wives of Yājňa-valkya in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.¹

1 ii. 4, 1; iv. 5, 1. 2. A Kātya | Sūtra, ii. 15 ct seq. See Weber, Indian appears in the Baudhāyana Śrauta | Literature, 138.

Kātyāyanī-putra, 'son of Kātyāyanī,' is mentioned in the last Vaṃśa (list of teachers) of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad¹ as a pupil of Gotamīputra and of Kauśikīputra. A Jātūkarṇya Kātyāyanīputra is named as a teacher in the Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka.²

1 vi. 5, 1, Kānva. 2 viii. 10. Cf. Weber, Indian Literature, 138.

Kānāndha is mentioned in the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra (xxi. 10) as son of Vadhryaśva.

Kānīta is the patronymic ('son of Kanīta') in the Rigveda¹ of Prthuśravas.

1 viii. 46, 21. 24. Cf. Sānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 11, 23.

Kānīna in the Atharvaveda¹ apparently denotes the 'son of a maiden.' See Pati.

1 v. 5, 8. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 334.

Kāṇḍā-viṣa in the Atharvaveda (x. 4, 22) denotes some kind of poison. Cf. Kanaknaka.

Kāpaṭava Su-nītha is mentioned in the Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa¹ as a pupil of Sutemanas Śāṇḍilyāyana.

1 Indische Studien, 4, 383.

Kāpileya.—The Kāpileyas and the Bābhravas are mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa¹ as descendants of Devarāta Vaiśvāmitra, the adoptive name of Śunahśepa.

1 vii. 17. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 216, n., 433.

Kāpī-putra ('son of Kāpī') is mentioned in the last Vaṃśa (list of teachers) of the Kāṇva recension of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (vi. 5, 1) as a pupil of Ātreyīputra.

Kāpeya ('descendant of Kapi'). The Kāpeyas are mentioned as priests of Citraratha in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā¹ and the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.² See also Śaunaka.

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1 xiii, 12.
2 xx. 12, 5. Cf. Hopkins, Transac-
tions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts
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and Sciences, 15, 52, 53; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 157.

Kāpya ('descendant of Kapi') is the patronymic of Sanaka and Navaka, two obviously fictitious persons who served at the Sattra ('sacrificial session') of the Vibhindukīyas in the Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa.¹ It is also the patronymic of Patañcala in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.² See also Kaiśorya.

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<sup>1</sup> iii. 233.
<sup>2</sup> iii. 3, 1; 7, 1. Cf. Weber, Indian Literature, 126, 137.
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Kābandhi ('descendant of Kabandha') is the patronymic of Vicārin in the Gopatha Brāhmaṇa (i. 2, 9. 18).

Kāma-pri ('descendant of Kāmapra') is the patronymic of Marutta in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (viii. 21). In the St. Petersburg Dictionary it is suggested that the reading in this passage should be kāmapre, 'fulfilling desires,' as an epithet of the sacrifice (yajūe).

Kāmalāyana ('descendant of Kamala') is the patronymic of Upakosala in the Chandogya Upanişad (iv. 10, 1).

Kāmpīla.—In one passage of the Yajurveda Samhitās1 the epithet Kāmpīla-vāsinī is applied to a woman, perhaps the king's Mahisi or chief wife, whose duty it was to sleep beside the slaughtered animal at the horse sacrifice (Asvamedha). The exact interpretation of the passage is very uncertain, but both Weber² and Zimmer³ agree in regarding Kāmpīla as the name of the town known as Kampilya in the later literature, and the capital of Pañcāla in Madhyadeśa.

1 Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 4, 19, 1; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 12, 20; Kāthaka Samhitā, Asvamedha, iv. 8; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiii. 18; Taittirīva Brāhmana, iii, o. 6; Satapatha Brāhmana, xiii. 2, 8, 3.

2 Indische Studien, 1, 184; Indian Literature, 114, 115.

3 Altindisches Leben, 36, 37. So also Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 204; von Schroeder, Maitrayanī Samhita, I, xxi; Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 164; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 321, 322.

Kāmboja (' native of Kamboja ') Aupamanyava (' descendant of Upamanyu') is mentioned as a teacher in the Vamsa Brāhmana.1

1 Weber, Indische Studien, 4, 372; Episches im vedischen Ritual, 45; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 102.

Kārapacava is the name in the Pañcavimśa Brāhmana 1 of a place on the Yamunā.

1 xxv. 10, 23. Cf. Asvalayana Srauta | xxiv. 6, 10; Weber, Indische Studien, Sūtra, xii. 6; Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, I, 34. xiii. 29, 25; Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra,

Kāraskara is the name of a people mentioned in the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra1 and the Apastamba2 and Hiranyakeśi3 Sūtras.

1 xx. 13 (14). Cf. Baudhayana | Dharma Sūtra, i. 2, 14.

2 xxii. 6, 18.

3 xvii. 6. Cf. Bühler, Sacred Books

of the East, 14, 148; Caland, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 56, 553.

Kāri is the name of one of the victims of the human sacrifice (Puruṣamedha) in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā,¹ and is there dedicated to 'laughter.' The commentator Mahīdhara² interprets the word as 'worker' (karaṇa-sīla), but the St. Petersburg Dictionary suggests that it means a 'jubilant' person (as derived from the root kr, 'to praise').

1 xxx, 6, 20; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, 2 On Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, loc. cit.

Kārīradi is the name of persons mentioned in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (ii. 4, 4) as holding a special view of the Udgītha (Sāmaveda Chant).

Kāru, 'poet,' is a word almost confined to the Rigveda.1 There is evidence that the poet was regarded as a professional man, just as much as the physician (Bhisaj).2 The poets, no doubt, mainly lived at the courts of princes amid their retainers,3 though they would probably also sing the praises of rich merchants. There was probably no essential connexion between the priest and the poet. Though the priest was often a poet, yet poetry can hardly have been restricted to the priestly caste. Indeed, at the horse sacrifice (Asvamedha) the Satapatha Brāhmana⁴ expressly requires that one of the singers of panegyrics should be a Rājanya, while the other was a Brāhmana, both singing verses of their own composition. The Anukramanī (Index) in several cases⁵ attributes hymns of the Rigveda to princes; and even though this may often be merely the same sort of procedure6 as has made Śūdraka the author of the Mrcchakațikā, or Harșa of the Ratnāvalī, and has given us royal teachers of the Brahman doctrine,7 still the Indian tradition evidently saw nothing odd in the idea of non-Brāhmanas as poets. Most of the non-sacred poetry has,

¹ i. 148, 2; 165, 12; 177, 5; 178, 3; ii. 43, 1; iii. 33, 8; 39, 7; v. 33, 7; vii. 27; 68, 9; 72, 4, etc.; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, i. 8, 7; Gopatha Brāhmaņa, i. 2, 21.

² ix. 112, 3. ³ vii. 73, 1.

⁴ xiii. I, 5, I , 4, 3, 5.

⁵ E.g., x. 92 is attributed to Śāryāta Mānava.

⁶ See Pischel, Vedische Studien, 3, 202.
7 Weber, Episches im vedischen Ritual,
20, n. 4, sees in Av. xx. a recension
of Kṣatriya character. He also finds
Kṣatriyas in Viśvāmitra and Kaksīvant,
but hardly with reason. Cf. Varna.

however, disappeared, for the epic is a product, as it stands, of a later period. See also Rsi.

Kārotara appears to denote in the Rigveda, and occasionally later, a 'filter' or 'sieve' for purifying the liquor called Surā.

1 i. 116, 7.

2 Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 16. 82;
Satapatha Brāhmana, xii. 9, 1, 2;

Kauṣītaki Brāhmana, ii. 7. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 280.

Kārotī is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (ix. 5, 2, 15) as a place, or perhaps a river, where Tura Kāvaṣeya made a fire-altar—that is, as a seat of the fire-cult par excellence.

Kārśakeyī-putra ('son of Kārśakeyī') is the name of a man mentioned in the last Vaṃśa (list of teachers) of the Bṛhadā-raṇyaka Upaniṣad. In the Kāṇva (vi. 5, 2) recension he is a pupil of Prācīnayogīputra; in the Mādhyaṃdina (vi. 4, 33) recension his teacher's name is Prāśnīputra Āsurivāsin.

Kārṣṇāyasa ('black metal'), a word found in the Upaniṣads,¹ must clearly mean 'iron.' See Ayas.

1 Chandogya Upanişad, iv. 17, 7; | maņa, iii. 17, 3. Cf. Zimmer, Allinvî. 1, 5; Jaiminīya Upanişad Brāh- | disches Leben, 52.

Kārṣman, a word meaning literally 'furrow,' and found only in the Rigveda,¹ is the designation of the goal in the chariot race. The competitor probably turned round it and came back to the starting-place.²

1 i. 116, 17; ix. 36, 1; 74, 8. 2 Av. ii. 14, 6. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 291, 292.

Kārşmarya is the name of a tree (Gmelina arborea) which is often alluded to in the Taittirīya Samhitā,¹ the Maitrāyanī Samhitā,² and the Śatapatha Brāhmana.³

1 v. 2, 7, 3, 4; vi. 2, 1, 5.
2 jii. 2, 6; 7, 9.
3 jii. 4, 1, 6; 8, 2, 17; iv. 3, 3, 6;

Kāla, the generic expression for 'time,' first occurs in the Rigveda,¹ where, however, it is used only once, in the late tenth book. It is known to the Atharvaveda,² where Kāla has already developed the sense of time as fate. The word is frequent in the Brāhmaṇas,³ superseding the earlier use of Rtu. The more general division of time is into 'past' (bhūta), 'present' (bhavat), and 'future' (bhaviṣyat).⁴ For other divisions see Ahan, Māsa, Saṃvatsara.

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    x, 42, 9.
    xix. 53. 54.
    Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 3, 3;
    ii. 4, 2, 4; iii. 8, 3, 36; vii. 2, 2, 21, etc.
    4 E.g., Sāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka, vii. 20.
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Kālakā is the name of one of the victims at the horse sacrifice (Aśvamedha) in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās,¹ variously identified with a bird² or a chameleon.³

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 15, 1; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 16; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 35.

² Mahīdhara on Vājasaneyi Samhitā, loc. cit.

3 Sāyaṇa on Taittirīya Samhitā, loc. cit. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 99.

Kāla-kāħja.—In the Atharvaveda¹ mention is made of the Kālakāñjas as being in the sky. Both Roth² and Zimmer³ hold that some constellation is meant. But as the defeat of the Kālakāñjas is one of Indra's exploits,⁴ it is doubtful whether any stress can be laid on that interpretation of the passage in the Atharvaveda. Whitney⁵ suggests that the three stars of Orion are meant, Bloomfield⁶ that the galaxy or the stars in general are intended.

¹ vi. 80, 2.

² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

³ Altindisches Leben, 353.

⁴ Kāṭhaka Samhitā, viii. 1. Cf. also Maitrāyanī Samhitā, i. 6, 9; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 1, 2, 4-6; Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad, iii. 1.

⁵ Translation of the Atharvaveda, 341.

⁶ Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 500; Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 163-169.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 410, 414 et seq.; 3, 465; Oertel, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 19, 121.

Kāvaseya ('descendant of Kavasa') is the constant patronymic of Tura. The Kāvaseyas are also mentioned as teachers of philosophical points in the Rigveda Āranyakas.1

1 Aitareya Āraṇyaka, iii. 2, 6; | Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 391, n.; 2, 418; Keith, Aitareya Āranyaka, 257. Sānkhāyana Āranyaka, viii. 11.

Kāvya (' descendant of Kavi ') is the constant 1 patronymic of Uśanas. In the Pañcavimśa Brāhmaņa it is also applied to Idhat² and Uksnorandhra.³

1.Rv. i. 51, 11; 83, 5; 121, 12; vi. 20, 11; viii. 23, 17; Av. iv. 29, 6; Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 5, 8, 5, etc. 2 xiv. 9, 16.

3 xiii. 9, 19. Cf. Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 48, 49.

Kāśa.—Roth¹ finds this word, which denotes a species of grass (Saccharum spontaneum) used for mats, etc., in one passage of the Rigveda,2 but the reading is uncertain. The word has this sense in the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka.3

1 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

2 x. 100, 10.

3 vi. 9, I.

Kāśi, Kāśya.—The name Kāśi denotes (in the plural1) the people of Kāśi (Benares), and Kāśya, the king of Kāśi. The Satapatha Brāhmaṇa² tells of Dhṛtarāṣṭra, king of Kāśi, who was defeated by Śatānīka Sātrājita, with the result that the Kāśis, down to the time of the Brāhmaṇa, gave up the kindling of the sacred fire. Sātrājita was a Bharata. We hear also of Ajātaśatru as a king of Kāśi; and no doubt Bhadrasena Ajātaśatrava, a contemporary of Uddālaka, was also a king of Kāśi.

The Kāśis and Videhas were closely connected, as was natural in view of their geographical position. The compound name Kāśi-Videha occurs in the Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad;4 in the Brhadāraņyaka Upaniṣad⁵ Gārgī describes Ajātaśatru as either a Kāśi or a Videha king. The Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra6

¹ Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 5, 4, 19. 21. The plural occurs also in the Paippalada recension of the Atharvaveda, v. 22, 14.

² xiii. 5, 4, 19.

³ Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 1, 1; iii. 8, 2; Kausitaki Upanisad, iv. 1.

⁴ Kausitaki Upanisad, loc. cit.

⁵ iii. 8, 2.

⁶ xvi. 29, 5.

mentions one Purohita as acting for the kings of Kāśi, Kosala, and Videha; and the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra⁷ mentions Kāśi and Videha in close proximity. Weber,⁸ indeed, throws out the suggestion that the Kāśis and the Videhas together constitute the Uśīnaras, whose name is very rare in Vedic literature.

As Kosala and Videha were in close connexion, Kāśi and Kosala are found combined in the compound name Kāśi-Kauśalyas of the Gopatha Brāhmaṇa.⁹

Though Kāśi is a late word, it is quite possible that the town is older, as the river Varaṇāvatī referred to in the Atharvaveda 10 may be connected with the later Vārāṇasī (Benares).

It is significant that while the Kāśis, Kosalas, and Videhas were united, any relations which the Kuru-Pañcala peoples may have had with them were hostile. It is a fair conclusion that between these two great groups of peoples there did exist some political conflict as well as probably a difference of culture in some degree. The Satapatha Brāhmana,11 in the story of the advance of Arvan civilization over Kosala and Videha, preserves a clear tradition of this time, and a piece of evidence that in the Kuru-Pañcāla country lay the real centre of the Brāhmaṇa culture (see also Kuru-Pancala). That the Kosala-Videhas were originally settlers of older date than the Kuru-Pañcālas is reasonably obvious from their geographical position, but the true Brāhmana culture appears to have been brought to them from the Kuru-Pañcala country. It is very probable that the East was less Aryan than the West, and that it was less completely reduced under Brahmin spiritual supremacy, as the movement of Buddhism was Eastern, and the Buddhist texts 12 reveal a position in which the Kşatriyas rank above Brāhmanas. With this agrees the fact that the later Vedic texts 13 display

Sacred Books of the East, 12, xlii et seq., 104, n. I.

12 See Fick, Die sociale Gliederung, chap. iv.

cnap. 1v.

13 Kātyāyana Srauta Sūtra, xxii. 4,
22; Lātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, viii. 6,
28. See Weber, Indische Studien, 10,
99; Fick, op. cit., 140, n. 1; and cf.
Magadha.

⁷ xxi. 13.
8 Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 212, 213.
9 i. 2. 0.

¹⁰ iv. 7. 1. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 20; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 376.

¹¹ i. 4, 1, 10 et seq. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 170 et seq.; Eggeling,

towards the people of Magadha a marked antipathy, which may be reasonably explained by that people's lack of orthodoxy, and which may perhaps be traced as far back as the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā. It is, of course, possible that the Kosala-Videhas and Kāśis actually were merely offshoots of the tribes later known as the Kuru-Pañcālas, and that they by reason of distance and less complete subjugation of the aborigines lost their Brahminical culture. This hypothesis, however, appears less likely, though it might be supported by a literal interpretation of the legend of the Aryan migration in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa. Is

14 XXX. 5. 22. See Magadha.

15 Cf. Eggeling, loc. cit., 104, n. 1.

Cf. Grierson, Journal of the Royal

Asiatic Society, 1908, 837, 1143; Keith, ibid., 831, 1138; Oldenberg, Buddha, 402 et seq.

Kāśyapa ('descendant of Kaśyapa') is a common patronymic, and is applied specially to Rśyaśriga, Devataras Śyāvasāyana, Śūṣa Vāhneya.

¹ Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, vii. 5, 1, 5; Taittirīya Āraṇyaka, ii. 18; x. 1, 8, etc.

Kāśyapī-bālākyā-māṭharī-putra ('son of Kāśyapī, Bālākyā, and Māṭharī'). This curious name is given in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad¹ to a teacher, pupil of Kautsīputra.

1 vi. 4, 31 (Mādhyamdina recension).

Kāṣāyaṇa is mentioned in the second Vaṃśa (list of teachers) of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad as a teacher, pupil of Sāyakāyana according to the Kāṇva (iv. 6, 2), of Saukarāyaṇa according to the Mādhyaṃdina recension (iv. 5, 27).

Kāṣṭhā seems to have the sense in the Rigveda¹ of 'course' for a chariot race. It also means in the Rigveda² and later³ 'goal,' either like the Kārṣman the turning place, or the final goal (paramā kāṣṭhā).

¹ i. 37, 10; 65, 3; iv. 58, 7; vi. 46, 1; vii. 93, 3; viii. 80, 8; ix. 21, 7.

² x. 102, 9, is perhaps so to be taken.
3 Av. ii. 14, 6; Taittirīya Samhitā,
i. 6, 9, 3; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, ix. 13; East. 32, 77.

Aitareya Brāhmaņa, iv. 7; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xi. 5, 7, 2. etc.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 291, 292; Max Müller, Sucred Books of the East, 32, 77.

Kās, Kāsa, Kāsa, Kāsikā.—All these four forms¹ of the same word denote 'cough,' which is mentioned in the Atharvaveda as accompanying a headache,² as a symptom in fever (Takman),³ and as an independent disease.⁴

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<sup>1</sup> Kās: Av. i. 12, 3; v. 22, 10;

Kāsa: Av. v. 22, 11 (probably); Kāsā:

Av. vi. 105, 1 et seq.; Kāsikā: Av. v. 22,

12; xi. 2, 22.

<sup>2</sup> Av. i. 12, 3.

<sup>3</sup> v. 22, 10.

<sup>4</sup> vi. 105.

Cf. Zimmer, Ad.

Grohmann, Indis

Jolly, Medicin, 89.
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3 v. 22, 10.
4 vi. 105.
Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 385;
Grohmann, Indische Studien, 9, 394;
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Kāhodi ('descendant of Kahoda') is the patronymic of Argala in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā (xxv. 5).

Kimśuka is the name of a tree (Butea frondosa) mentioned in the wedding hymn of the Rigveda, the bridal car being described as adorned with its blossoms (su-kimśuka).

1 x. 85, 20. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches | is that the car is made of the wood of Leben, 62. Sāyaṇa thinks the meaning | the tree.

Kiki-dīvi denotes some kind of bird, perhaps the blue jay.¹ According to the commentator, it means 'partridge' (tittiri) in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā.²

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<sup>1</sup> Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary,
s.v. See Rv. x. 97, 13.
<sup>2</sup> v. 6, 22, 1.
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Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 92; Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 251.

Kitava, 'the gambler,' is frequently referred to in the Rigveda¹ and later.² A father is represented as chastising his son for gambling.³ The gambler seems at times to have fallen, along with his family, into servitude, presumably by selling himself to pay his debts.⁴ Technical names⁵ for different sorts of gamblers given in the Yajurveda Samhitās are Ādinava-darśa,

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1 ii. 29, 5; v. 85, 8; x. 34, 3. 7. 10.
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² Av. vii. 50, 1; 109, 3; Väjasaneyi Samhitä, xxx. 8, 18, 22; Aitareya Brāhmana, ii. 19, etc.

³ Rv. ii. 29, 5. Cf. Pitr.

⁴ Rv. x. 34. Cf. perhaps the bhaktadāsa, 'slave for hire,' of the Mānava Dharma Sāstra, viii. 415; Fick, Die sociale Gliederung, 197.

Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 3, 3, 1 et seq. ; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 18.

4, I2, I.

Kalpin, Adhi-kalpin, and Sabhā-sthānu. None of these can be safely explained, though the last has usually been taken as a satirical name derived from the gambler's devotion to the dicing place (Sabhā), 'pillar of the dicing hall.' The first literally means 'seeing ill-luck,'8 and may refer to the quickness of the dicer to note an error on the part of his antagonist, or to his eagerness to see the defeat of his rival.

6 Cf. Weber, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 18, 282; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 284.

hitā, xxx. 18; Sāyaņa on Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 16, 1. 8 Cf. Roth, St. Petersburg Dic-

tionary, s.v.; Weber, loc. cit. 7 So Mahidhara on Vajasanevi Sam-

Kim-purusa, lit. 'what sort of man,' appears in the Brahmanas 1 to designate the 'ape,' which is a mimic man. Possibly the same sense should be seen in the passage of the Vajasaneyi Samhitā,2 where it occurs, and where Roth3 assumes it to refer to a contemptible man. Max Müller4 renders it 'savage.'

1 Aitareya Brahmana, ii. 8; Satapatha Brahmana, i. 2, 3, 9; vii. 5, 2 xxx. 16: Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii.

4 Ancient Sanskrit Literature, 420.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 9, 246; Omina und Portenta, 356; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, 51, n. 3.

3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Kiyāmbu is the name of one of the water-plants which are to grow, according to a funeral hymn in the Rigveda,1 on the place where the body of the dead was burned. The word seems to mean 'having some water,' possibly by popular etymology.2

1 x. 16, 13=Av. xviii. 3, 6.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 62; Bloomfield, Proceedings of the American Oriental Society, October, 1890, xl.

1. Kirāta is a name applied to a people living in the caves of the mountains, as appears clearly from the dedication of the Kirāta to the caves (guhā) in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā,1 and from the reference in the Atharvaveda2 to a Kirāta girl (kairātikā), who digs a remedy on the ridges of the mountains.

² Cf. Sayana on Rv., loc. cit., and on Taittirīya Āraņyaka, vi. 4, 1, 2, where Kyāmbu is the form.

¹ xxx. 16; Taittirīya Brāhmana, iii. 4, 12, 1.

Later³ the people called Kirātas were located in Eastern Nepal, but the name seems to have been applied to any hill folk, no doubt aborigines, though the Mānava Dharma Śāstra⁴ regards them as degraded Kṣatriyas.

3 Lassen, Indische Alterthumskunde, 12, 530, 534.

4 x. 44.
Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 32;

Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 207; V. Smith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1909, 258, n. 1; Lévi, Le Népal, 2, 77.

2. Kirāta.—In the story of Asamāti there appear, as the two priests who are opposed to the Gaupāyanas, Kirāta and Akuli according to the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa,¹ or Kilāta and Ākuli according to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.² No doubt the name is chosen, not as that of a historic person, but as a suitable designation of a hostile priest; for it is probably identical with the name of the mountaineers described in the preceding article.

1 xiii. 12, 5 (where the text reads kirāta-kulyau). Böhtlingk, Dictionary, s.v., takes the word, with Sāyaṇa, as an adjective, kirāta-kula, 'of the family of Kirāta.' The reading in the Bṛhaddevatā (vii. 86) is kirātākulī.

2 i. 1, 4, 14 (where the text reads

kilātākulī). Cf. also Sāṭyāyanaka Brāhmaṇa apud Sāyaṇa on Rv. x. 57, 1; 60, 1; Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 167; Journal of the American Oriental Society, 18, 41 et seq.; Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 48, n. 1.

Kilāta is the form of the name 2. Kirāta that appears in the Śatapatha, Śāṭyāyanaka, and Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇas.¹

1 See note 2 under the preceding article.

Kilāsa is the name of a disease, 'white leprosy,' in the Atharvaveda¹ and the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, etc.² It resulted in the appearance of grey (palita) and white (śukla, śveta) spots all over the skin. Haug gave the same sense to alasa in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,³ but this is doubtful. The fem. Kilāsī is taken by Max Müller to mean a 'spotted deer' in one passage of the Rigveda.⁴

1 i, 23, 24.

2 xxx. 21; Pancavimsa Brahmana, xiv. 3, 17; xxiii. 11, 11; Taittiriya Aranyaka, v. 4, 12. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 391; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 266; Jolly, Medicin, 98; Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 68.

³ vi. 33, 5.

⁴ v. 53, I.

Kīkaṭa.—The name of this people occurs only in one passage of the Rigveda, where they appear as hostile to the singer and as under the leadership of Pramaganda. Yāska² declares that Kīkaṭa was the name of a non-Āryan country, and later³ Kīkaṭa is given as a synonym of Magadha. Hence Zimmer⁴ concludes that the Kīkaṭas were a non-Āryan people living in the country later known as Magadha. Weber⁵ holds that this people were located in Magadha, but were Āryan, though at variance with other Āryan tribes, perhaps because of heretical tendencies, for Magadha was later a seat of Buddhism. But the identification is uncertain, and is doubted by Oldenberg⁶ and Hillebrandt 7

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<sup>1</sup> iii. 53, 14.
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5 Indische Studien, 1, 186; Indian Literature, 79, n. *.

6 Buddha, 402, 403; Rgveda-Noten, 1, 253.

7 Vedische Mythologie, 1, 14-18.

Kīṭa is the name of a species of worm mentioned in the Atharvaveda, and frequently in the Upaniṣads.

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1 ix. 4, 16.
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² Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 1, 19; 2, 14; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, vi. 9, 3;

10, 2; vii. 2, 1; 7, 1; Kauşītaki Upanişad, i. 2, etc.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 98.

Kīnāśa, a name of the ploughman or cultivator of the soil, is found in the Rigveda¹ and the later Samhitās.² See Kṛṣi.

1 iv. 57, 8.

² Av. iv. 11, 10; vi. 30, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 11; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 4, 8, 7.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 237; Weber, Indische Studien, 18, 45; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 86, n.

Kīri is in the Rigveda¹ a regular designation of the 'poet.' Cf. Rṣi.

1 i. 31, 13; ii. 12, 6; v. 52, 12 Rigueda, Glossar, 46; Pischel, Vedische (kīriņaļe; Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 317). But see Geldner,

Kīrśā, the name of some kind of animal, or perhaps bird, is mentioned in the list of victims for the horse sacrifice (Aśvamedha) in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā.¹

² Nirukta, vi. 32.

³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. 4 Altindisches Leben, 31, 118. Cf.

⁴ Altindisches Leben, 31, 118. C. Geldner, Rigveda, Kommentar, 58.

¹ v. 5, 20, 1. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 99; St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Kīlāla, a word denoting a 'sweet drink,' is found in all the later Samhitās,¹ but not in the Rigveda. As the Surā-kāra, 'maker of Surā,' is dedicated in the list of victims in the human sacrifice² (Puruṣamedha) to Kīlāla, it must have been a drink of somewhat the same nature as the Surā itself, possibly, as Zimmer³ suggests, a kind of rum.

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1 Av. iv. 11, 10; 26, 6; 27, 5; vi. 69, 1; x. 6, 25; xii. 1, 59; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 6, 12, 13; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, ii. 7, 12; iii. 11, 3. 4:
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Vājasaneyi Samhitā, ii. 34; iii. 43; xx. 65; xxx. 11, etc.
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² Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. II Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 9, I. ³ Altindisches Leben, 281.

Kīśmīla denotes, according to Böhtlingk, a certain disease in the Paippalāda recension of the Atharvaveda.

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<sup>1</sup> Dictionary, s.v.
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2 xix. 8, 4.

Kīsta in two passages of the Rigveda¹ means 'poet,' like Kīri.

1 i. 127, 7; vi. 67, 10. Cf. Yāska, Nirukta, iii. 15.

Kukkuţa, 'cock,' occurs in the Yajurveda¹ only.2

1 Vājasaneyi Samhitā, i. 16. Cf. | 2 It is common in the later Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 91. | language.

Kuṭaru is, according to the commentator Mahīdhara,¹ synonymous with Kukkuṭa, 'cock.' The word is found in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās only.²

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1 On Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 23.

2 Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 17, 1;

Maitrāyanī Samhitā, i. 1, 6; iii. 14, Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 93.
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Kuṇḍa-pāyin ('drinking from a jug') is the name of a teacher mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa¹ and in the Sūtras.2

¹ xxv. 4, 4. 2 Asvalāyana Srauta Sūtra, xii. 4, 6; Kātyāyana Srauta Sūtra, xxiv. 4.

Kuṇḍa-pāyya ('descendant of Kuṇḍapāyin') is a patronymic connected with a man named Śṛṅgavṛṣ in one passage of the Rigveda.¹

1 viii. 17, 13. Cf. Ludwig, Transla. | Journal of the American Oriental Society, tion of the Rigveda, 3, 161; Hopkins, 17, 90.

Kuṇḍṛṇācī is the name of an animal of unknown character occurring in the lists of victims at the horse sacrifice (Aśvamedha) in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās.¹ The word also occurs in one passage of the Rigveda,² in which a bird would seem to be intended, though Sāyaṇa interprets it as meaning 'with crooked flight' (kuṭila-gatyā). In his commentary on the Taittirīya Saṃhitā³ he takes the word to denote the house-lizard (gṛha-godhikā).

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    <sup>1</sup> Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 16, 1;
    <sup>2</sup> i. 29, 6.
    <sup>3</sup> v. 5, 16, 1.
    saneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 37.
    <sup>2</sup> i. 29, 6.
    <sup>3</sup> v. 5, 16, 1.
    Cf. Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 89.
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Kutsa is the name of a hero frequently mentioned in the Rigveda, which, however, gives practically no information about him, for he was no doubt already a figure of the mythic past. He is several times¹ called Ārjuneya, 'descendant of Arjuna,' and is usually² associated with Indra in the exploit of defeating the demon Śuṣṇa and winning the sun. He is said³ to have defeated Smadibha, Tugra, and the Vetasus, but, on the other hand, he is several times⁴ mentioned with Atithigva and Āyu as being vanquished by Indra, his defeat in one passage⁵ being attributed to Tūrvayāṇa. Elsewhere⁶ he appears with Atithigva as a friend of Indra's. In the later literature he is seldom⁵ mentioned except in connexion with the myth of his binding Indra, which is found in the Brāhmaṇas,⁶ and which is based on an obscure verse in the Rigveda.⁰

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1 Rv. iv. 26, 1; vii. 19, 2; viii. 1,
11.
2 Rv. i. 63, 3; 121, 19; 174, 5;
175, 4; iv. 30, 4; v. 29, 4; vi. 20, 5;
vii. 19, 2; x. 99, 9.
3 Rv. x. 49, 4.
4 Rv. i. 53, 10; ii. 14, 7; viii. 53, 2.

Cf. iv. 26, 1.
5 Rv. i. 53, 10.
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 ⁶ Rv. i. 51, 6; vi. 26, 3.
 ⁷ E.g., Av. iv. 29, 5; Pañcavimśa
 Brāhmaņa, xiv. 11, 26.

⁸ Pañcaviméa Brāhmaņa, ix. 2, 22; Śāţyāyanaka in Sāyaņa on Rv. x. 38, 5; Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, i. 228; Oertel, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 18, 31.
y x. 38, 5.

The Kutsas, or descendants of Kutsa, are mentioned in one hymn of the Rigveda.10

10 vii, 25, 5.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 113, 148; Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 210, 211; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 3, 284 et seq., who

suggests that perhaps two Kutsas-one a friend of Indra, and the other a foe - may be distinguished; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 3, 171; Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 57, n. I.

Kutsa Aurava ('son of Uru') is mentioned in the Pañcavimśa Brāhmana1 as having murdered his domestic priest (burohita), Upagu Sauśravasa, because the father of the latter insisted on paying homage to Indra. This fact may be compared with the hostility to Indra of Kutsa according to certain passages of the Rigveda.2

1 xiv. 6, 8.

² See Kutsa.

3, 284; Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 15, 57; Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 32.

Kunti.—The Kuntis are referred to in an obscure and corrupt passage of the Kāthaka Samhitā1 as having defeated the Pancālas.

1 xxvi. 9. See Weber, Indische Studien, 3, 471, and cf. perhaps Maitrayani Samhitā, iv. 2, 6.

Kubera Vārakya is mentioned in a list of teachers in the Jaiminīya Upanişad Brāhmaņa (iii. 41, 1) as a pupil of Jayanta Vārakya.

Kubhā is the name of a river mentioned twice in the Rigveda.1 and no doubt identical with the modern Kabul river, the Greek Κωφήν.

1 v. 53, 9; x. 75, 6. Cf. Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 14; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 200.

Kubhra is the name of some animal in the Maitrayani Samhitā (ii. 5, 3).

Ku-muda is the name of a plant mentioned with other water plants in one passage of the Atharvaveda. It is no doubt the white water-lily (Nymphæa esculenta), being the name of that plant in post-Vedic Sanskrit also.

1 iv. 34, 5. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 70.

Kumba is mentioned with Opaśa and Kurīra as an ornament of women's hair in the Atharvaveda. Geldner thinks that, like those two words, it originally meant 'horn,' but this is very doubtful. Indian tradition simply regards the term as denoting a female adornment connected with the dressing of the hair.

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1 vi. 138, 3.
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Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 265; rituelle Sutra des Baudhayana, 59.

Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 538, 539; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 348; Caland, Über das rituelle Sütra des Baudhäyana, 59.

Kumbyā or Kumvyā is a word mentioned after Rc, Yajus; Sāman, and Gāthā in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ to denote a form of speech. In the Aitareya Āraṇyaka² it appears as one of the forms of measured speech together with Rc and Gāthā. The precise meaning of the term is unknown. Weber³ suggests the sense 'refrain.'

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1 xi. 5, 7, 10.
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Cf. Keith, Aitareya Āraņyaka, 221; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 101.

Kumbha is a word of frequent occurrence in the Rigveda, as well as later, and denotes a 'pot.' Usually no doubt made of clay, it was easily broken. See also Ukhā.

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<sup>1</sup> j. 116, 7; 117, 6; vii. 33, 13, etc.

<sup>2</sup> Av. i. 6, 4; iii. 12, 7, etc.; Vāja-
saneyi Samhitā, xix. 87, etc.

<sup>3</sup> Rv. x. 89, 7.

Cf. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities,
367.
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Kumbhī-nasa ('pot-nosed') is the name of an animal mentioned in the list of victims at the horse sacrifice (Aśvamedha) in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā.¹ Possibly some sort of snake is meant, as in the later literature.

1 v. 5, 14, 1. Cf. Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 95; St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

² Vedische Studien, 1, 131.

³ Sāyaṇa on Av. vi. 138, 3.

² ii. 3, 6.

³ Indische Studien, 10, 111, n.

Kuya-vāc ('evil-speaking') appears in one passage of the Rigveda¹ to denote a demon slain by Indra, probably as a personification of the barbarian opponents of the Āryans. The expression mṛdhra-vāc ('speaking insultingly') is similarly used of barbarians in the Rigveda.²

1 i. 174, 7. 2 v. 29, 10; 32, 8. See Dasyu.

Kurīra, like Opaśa and Kumba, denotes some sort of female head ornament in the description of the bride's adornment in the wedding hymn of the Rigveda¹ and in the Atharvaveda.² According to the Yajurveda Samhitās,³ the goddess Sinīvālī is described by the epithets su-kapardā, su-kurīra, sv-opaśā, as wearing a beautiful head-dress.

According to Geldner,⁴ the word originally meant 'horn'; but this is uncertain, as this sense is not required in any passage in which the term occurs.⁵

- 1 x. 85, 8.
- ² vi. 138, 3.
- 3 Taittiriya Samhitā, iv. 1, 5, 3; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 7, 5; Vājasanevi Samhitā, xi. 56.
 - 4 Vedische Studien, 1, 131, 132.
 - 5 Gopatha Brahmana, i. 3, 21 rituelle Sutra des Baudhayana, 59.

(=Vaitāna Sūtra, xi. 22), cited by Geldner, is quite vague.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 265; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 539; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 348; Caland, Über das rituelle Sütra des Baudhäyana, 59.

Kurīrin ('having a Kurīra') is a word occurring in an ambiguous passage of the Atharvaveda,¹ in which it may be taken either as a noun meaning a 'crested animal,' perhaps as Zimmer² suggests the 'peacock,' or as an epithet of the word Aja, 'goat,' in which case it might mean 'horned.' But even in the latter alternative a metaphorical application of the word seems sufficient, just as in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa³ Opaśa is used of the horns of cattle, and thus renders unnecessary the adoption of Geldner's⁴ view that the original meaning of Kurīra is 'horn.'

¹ v. 31, 2. 2 Altindisches Leben, 91.

³ xiii. 4, 3.

⁴ Vedische Studien, 1, 130.

Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda. 457. 539: Weber, Indische Studien, 18, 285: Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 279.

Kuru.—The Kurus appear as by far the most important people in the Brāhmaṇa literature. There is clear evidence that it was in the country of the Kurus, or the allied Kuru-Pañcālas, that the great Brāhmanas were composed.1 The Kurus are comparatively seldom mentioned alone, their name being usually coupled with that of the Pañcālas on account of the intimate connexion of the two peoples. The Kuru-Pañcālas are often expressly referred to as a united nation.2 In the land of the Kuru-Pañcālas speech is said to have its particular home;3 the mode of sacrifice among the Kuru-Pañcālas is proclaimed to be the best;4 the Kuru-Pañcāla kings perform the Rājasūya or royal sacrifice;5 their princes march forth on raids in the dewy season, and return in the hot season.6 Later on the Kuru-Pañcāla Brahmins are famous in the Upanișads.7 Weber⁸ and Grierson⁹ have sought to find traces in Vedic literature of a breach between the two tribes, the latter scholar seeing therein a confirmation of the theory that the Kurus belonged to the later stream of immigrants into India, who were specially Brahminical, as opposed to the Pañcālas, who were anti-Brahminical. In support of this view, Weber refers to the story in the Kāthaka Samhitā 10 of a dispute between Vaka Dālbhya and Dhṛtarāṣṭra Vaicitravīrya, the former being held to be by origin a Pañcāla, while the latter is held

¹ For the Pañcavimsa Brāhmana, cf. Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 49, 50, with Weber, Indian Literature, 67, 68; for the Aitareya Brāhmana and the Śānkhāyana Brāhmana, Weber, loc. cit., 45; for the Aitareya and Sānkhāyana Āraņyakas, Keith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1908, 387; for the Satapatha Brāhmaņa, Weber, loc. cit., 132, Transactions of the Berlin Academy, 1895, 859. The Jaiminiya Brāhmana refers repeatedly to the Kuru-Pañcālas, whose name also occurs in the late and confused Gopatha Brahmana. For the Taittiriya Brahmana, see i. 8, 4, 1. 2, and for the Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iv. 2, 6.

² Jaiminīya Upanişad Brāhmaņa, iii. 7, 6; 8, 7; iv. 7, 2; Kauşītaki Upanişad, iv. 1; Gopatha Brāhmaṇa, 1. 2. 9; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, x. 6; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xi. 3, 3 (Kāṇva recension).

3 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, iii. 2, 3,

4 Ibid., i. 7, 2, 8; cf. Kuru-vājaptya in Sānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 3, 15; Lātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, viii. 11, 18.

Satapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 5, 2, 3, 5.
Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, 1, 8, 4, 1, 2.

⁷ Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 78; Jaiminīya Upanişad Brāhmaņa, iii. 30, 6; iv. 6, 2; Brhadāranyaka Upanişad, iii. 1, 1; 9, 20, etc.

8 Indische Studien, 3, 470; Indian Literature, 114.

⁹ Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1908, 602-607; 837-844.

of the East, 12, xli.

to be a Kuru. But there is no trace of a quarrel between Kurus and Pañcālas in the passage in question, which merely preserves the record of a dispute on a ritual matter between a priest and a prince: the same passage refers to the Naimisīya sacrifice among the Kuru-Pañcālas, and emphasizes the close connexion of the two peoples.11 Secondly, Weber conjectures in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā 12 that Subhadrikā of Kāmpīla was the chief queen of the king of a tribe living in the neighbourhood of the clan, for whose king the horse sacrifice described in the Samhitā was performed. But the interpretation of this passage by Weber is open to grave doubt;13 and in the Kānva recension of the Samhitā 14 a passage used at the Rājasūya shows that the Kuru-Pañcālas had actually one king. Moreover, there is the evidence of the Satapatha Brāhmana 15 that the old name of the Pañcālas was Krivi. This word looks very like a variant of Kuru, and Zimmer 16 plausibly conjectures that the Kurus and Krivis formed the Vaikarna 17 of the Rigveda, especially as both peoples are found about the Sindhu and the Asiknī.18

The Kurus alone are chiefly mentioned in connexion with the locality which they occupied, Kurukşetra. We are told, however, of a domestic priest (Purohita) in the service of both the Kurus and the Srnjayas, 19 who must therefore at one time have been closely connected.20 In the Chandogya Upanisad reference is made to the Kurus being saved by a mare (aśvā),21 and to some disaster which befel them owing to a hailstorm.22 In the Sūtras, again, a ceremony (Vājapeya) of the Kurus is mentioned.23 There also a curse, which was pronounced on them and led to their being driven from Kuruksetra, is alluded to.24

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11 See Keith, Journal of the Royal
Asiatic Society, 1908, 831-836; 1138-
  15 xxiii. 18.
  13 Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East,
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¹⁴ xi. 3, 3. Cf. Weber, Indian Litera. ture, 114, note *.

¹⁵ xiii. 5, 4, 7. 16 Altindisches Leben, 103.

¹⁷ vii. 18, 11.

¹⁸ Keith, loc. cit., 835.

¹⁹ Satapatha Brāhmaņa, ii. 4. 4. 5. 20 Cf. Weber, Indian Literature, 123.

²¹ iv. 17, 9: for akvā Böhtlingk in his edition reads akmā, followed by Little, Grammatical Index, 1.

²² i. 10. 1.

²² i. 10, 1. ²² Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 3,

²⁴ Ibid., xv. 16, 11. Cf. Weber, Indian Literature, 136.

This possibly adumbrates the misfortunes of the Kauravas in the epic tradition.

In the Rigveda the Kurus do not appear under that name as a people. But mention is made of a prince, Kuruśravaṇa ('Glory of the Kurus'),²⁵ and of a Pākasthāman Kaurayāṇa.²⁶ In the Atharvaveda²⁷ there occurs as a king of the Kurus Parikṣit, whose son, Janamejaya, is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa²⁸ as one of the great performers of the horse sacrifice.

It is a probable conjecture of Oldenberg's 29 that the Kuru people, as known later, included some of the tribes referred to by other names in the Rigveda. Kuruśravana, shown by his name to be connected with the Kurus, is in the Rigveda called Trāsadasyava, 'descendant of Trasadasyu,' who is well known as a king of the Pūrus. Moreover, it is likely that the Trtsu-Bharatas, who appear in the Rigveda as enemies of the Pūrus, later coalesced with them to form the Kuru people.30 Since the Bharatas appear so prominently in the Brāhmaņa texts as a great people of the past, while the later literature ignores them in its list of nations, it is difficult to avoid the conclusion that they became merged in some other tribe. Moreover, there is evidence that the Bharatas occupied the territory in which the Kurus were later found. Two of them are spoken of in a hymn of the Rigveda 31 as having kindled fire on the Dṛṣadvatī, the Āpayā, and the Sarasvatī—that is to say, in the sacred places of the later Kuruksetra. Similarly, the goddess Bharati ('belonging to the Bharatas') is constantly mentioned in the Āprī ('propitiatory') hymns together with Sarasvatī.32 Again, according to the Satapatha Brahmana, one Bharata king was victorious over the Kāśis,33 and another made offerings to Gangā and Yamunā,34 while raids of the Bharatas against the Satvants are mentioned in the Aitareva Brahmana.35 Nor is it

²⁵ Rv. x. 33, 4.

²⁶ Rv. viii. 3; 21.

²⁷ xx. 127, 7 et seq:; Khila, v. 10.

²⁸ xiii. 5, 4.

²⁹ Buddha, 403, 404.

³⁰ Ibid., 406-409.

³¹ iii. 23.

³² Cf. Scheftelowitz, Die Apokryphen des Rgveda, 145.

³³ xiii. 5, 4, 11.

³⁴ Ibid., 21.

³⁵ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 25 (cf. Haug's edition, 2, 128, n. 3); Oldenberg, Buddha, 407, note *.

without importance that the Bharatas appear as a variant for the Kuru-Pañcālas in a passage of the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā,³6 and that in the list of the great performers of the horse sacrifice the names of one Kuru and two Bharata princes are given without any mention of the people over which they ruled, while in other cases that information is specifically given.³7

The territory of the Kuru-Pañcālas is declared in the Aitareya Brāhmana to be the middle country (Madhyadeśa).38 A group of the Kuru people still remained further north—the Uttara Kurus beyond the Himālaya. It appears from a passage of the Satapatha Brahmana that the speech of the Northernersthat is, presumably, the Northern Kurus-and of the Kuru-Pañcālas was similar, and regarded as specially pure.39 There seems little doubt that the Brahminical culture was developed in the country of the Kuru-Pañcālas, and that it spread thence east, south, and west. Traces of this are seen in the Vrātya Stomas (sacrifices for the admission of non-Brahminical Āryans) of the Pañcavimśa Brāhmana,40 and in the fact that in the Śānkhāyana Āranyaka it is unusual for a Brahmin to dwell in the territory of Magadha.41 The repeated mention of Kuru-Pañcāla Brahmins is another indication of their missionary activity.42

The geographical position of the Kuru-Pañcālas renders it probable that they were later immigrants into India than the Kosala-Videha or the Kāśis,43 who must have been pushed

³⁶ xi. 3, 3. See note 14; Oldenberg, Buddha, 408, 409.

³⁷ Oldenberg, 409, note *.

³⁸ viii. 14. Cf. Oldenberg, 392, 393. 39 iii. 2, 3, 15. This is the sense which it appears to bear, as the Kuru-Pañcālas can hardly be reckoned as being northerly (Oldenberg, 395), and the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa, vii. 6 (Indische Studien, 2, 309) is independent evidence for the pure speech of the north. Cf. Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, xlii., n.; Weber, Indian Literature, 45; Indische Studien, 1, 191.

⁴⁰ xvii. I, I. See also Av. xv. with Whitney's and Lanman's notes; Weber, Indische Studien, I, 33 et seq.; Indian Literature, 67, 78, 80.

⁴¹ vii. 13. Cf. Oldenberg, Buddha, 400, note *; Weber, Indian Literature, 112, n. 126.

⁴² See e.g. Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 4, I, 2, and note 6.

⁴³ This is recognized, e.g., by Oldenberg, Buddha, 9, 391, 398, 399; Lanman, Sanskrit Reader, 297, etc. The narrative of the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 4, I, 10 et seq. (Weber, Indische Studien, I, 170), rather implies that the Kosala-Videhas are offshoots of the Kuru-Pancālas, but Oldenberg and Macdonell (Sanskrit Literature, 214 interpret this as referring to the spread of Vedic tradition and culture, not of nationality.

into their more eastward territories by a new wave of Āryan settlers from the west. But there is no evidence in Vedic literature to show in what relation of time the immigration of the latter peoples stood to that of their neighbours on the west. It has, however, been conjectured,44 mainly on the ground of later linguistic phenomena, which have no cogency for the Vedic period, that the Kurus were later immigrants, who, coming by a new route, thrust themselves between the original Āryan tribes which were already in occupation of the country from east to west. Cf. also Krtvan. For other Kuru princes see Kauravya.

44 Cf. Grierson, Languages of India, 52 et seq.; Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1908, 837 et seq. On the other hand, it is probably an error to assume that the Bharatas were originally situated far west of Kuruksetra, and that the main action of the Rigveda was confined to the Panjab. When Vasistha celebrates the crossing of the Vipas and Sutudri (Rv. iii. 33), he probably came from the east, as Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 218, points out, and not from the west. Adopting the ordinary view, Hopkins, India, Old and New, 52, finds it necessary to suggest that Yamunā is only another name in the Rv. for the Parusnī. But the necessity for this suggestion, which is not in itself plausible, disappears when it is realized that the Bharatas held a territory roughly corresponding to Kuruksetra, and bounded on the east by the Yamunā. On the other hand, Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 142, 143, places the Kurus near the Ārjīkīyā in Kaśmīr, which puts them too far north. So also Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 103, and Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, xlii. It seems probable that the Kurus were at a very early period widely scattered to the north of the Himālaya, in Kuruksetra, and about the Sindhu and Asikni.

Cf. Oldenberg, Buddha, 400 et seq.; Macdonell, Sanshrit Literature, 152-157; von Schroeder, Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 164 et seq.; Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 187 et seq.; Indian Literature, 114, 135, 136; Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, 27: Pargiter, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1908, 333 et seq.; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 205, n.

Kuru-kṣetra ('land of the Kurus') is always regarded in the Brāhmaṇa texts¹ as a particularly sacred country. Within its boundaries flowed the rivers Dṛṣadvatī and Sarasvatī, as well as the Āpayā.² Here, too, was situated Śaryanāvant,³ which Śāńkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 16, 11,

¹ Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa, xxv. 10; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, iv. 1, 5, 13; xi. 5, 1, 4; xiv. 1, 1, 2; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vii. 30; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, ii. 1, 4; iv. 5, 9; Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 126 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, II, exlvi);

² Cf. Rv. iii. 23; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 218.

³ See Pischel, loc. cit., and cf. Arjīkīyā.

appears to have been a lake, like that known to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa by the name of Anyataḥ-plakṣā. According to Pischel, there was also in Kurukṣetra a stream called Pastyā, which he sees in certain passages of the Rigveda. The boundaries of Kurukṣetra are given in a passage of the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka as being Khāṇḍava on the south, the Tūrghna on the north, and the Parīṇah on the west. Roughly speaking, it corresponded to the modern Sirhind.

4 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xi. 5, 1, 4.

⁵ Pischel, loc. cit., 219.

⁶ v. 1, 1. These places cannot be further identified. See also Maru.

Cf. von Schroeder, Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 164, 165; Max Müller, Sacred

Books of the East, 32, 398, 399; Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 78, 79; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 174. Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, xli., seems to place Kurukşetra, as lying between the Yamunā aud Gangā, too far east.

Kuruṅga is mentioned in the Rigveda¹ as a prince and a patron. Ludwig² suggests that he was a king of the Anus, but for this theory there seems no good ground. As the Turvaśas are mentioned in the same verse, he may possibly have been one of their kings. The name suggests a connexion with the Kurus, and it may be noted that in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa³ the Turvaśas are connected with the Pancālas (Krivis).

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1 viii. 4, 19; Nirukta, vi. 22.
2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 16o. 3 xi. 5, 4, 16. See Oldenberg, Buddha, 404.
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Kuru-śravaṇa Trāsadasyava is alluded to as dead in a hymn of the Rigveda,¹ which refers also to his son Upamaśravas, and his father Mitrātithi. In another hymn² he is mentioned as still alive. His name connects him on the one hand with the Kurus, and on the other with Trasadasyu and the Pūrus.

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1 x. 33, 4. Cf. Brhaddevatā, vii. 35, of the Rigveda, 3, 165; Geldner, 36.

2 x. 32, 9. Cf. Ludwig, Translation Sanshrit Reader, 386.
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Kurūru, apparently the name of a species of worm, is mentioned twice in the Atharvaveda.¹

¹ ii. 31, 2; ix. 2, 22. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 98.

Kurkura is an onomatopoetic name for the dog in the Atharvayeda. See also Śvan.

1 vii. 95, 2. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 233.

Kula, Kula-pā.—As an uncompounded word, Kula does not occur before the period of the Brāhmaṇas.¹ It denotes the 'home' or 'house of the family,' and by metonymy the family itself, as connected with the home. The Kula-pā (lit. 'house protector'), or chief of the family, is mentioned in the Rigveda² as inferior to and attendant on the Vrājapati in war, the latter being perhaps the leader of the village contingent of the clan. In the Atharvaveda³ a girl is ironically called Kulapā, because she is left without a husband in the world, and has only Yama (the god of death) for a spouse.

The use of the term Kula points clearly to a system of individual families, each no doubt consisting of several members under the headship of the father or eldest brother, whose Kula the dwelling is. As distinct from Gotra, Kula seems to mean the family in the narrower sense of the members who still live in one house, the undivided family. Cf. Grha, Grāma, Jana, Viś.

1 Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, i. 1, 2, 22;
ii. 1, 4, 4; 4, 1, 14; xi. 5, 3, 11; 8, 1, 3;
xiii. 4, 2, 17; Brhadāraņyaka Upanişad,
i. 5, 32; Chāndogya Upanişad, iii., 13,
6, etc.
2 x. 179, 2.

³ i. 14. 3. Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 15; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 252, correcting Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 314. Cf. Zimmer, op. cit., 162.

Kulāla, the word denoting a 'potter,' occurs in the Śatarudriya, or litany to Rudra in the Yajurveda.¹

1 Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvi. 27. Cf. | Maitrāyaņi Samhitā, i. 8, 3, and kulāla - kṛta, 'made by a potter,' | Kaulāla.

Kuliśa, 'axe,' is mentioned in the Rigveda as used for the making of chariots,¹ and also in warfare,² while the Atharvaveda refers to its employment in cutting down trees.³

¹ iii. 2, 1. ² i. 32, 5.

3 ii. 12, 3.
Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 252.

172 NAMES OF ANIMALS-ARROW-NECK-BEANS [Kulikaya

Kulīkaya is the form in the Taittirīya Samhitā¹ of the name of an animal, apparently a kind of fish, as explained by Mahīdhara in his commentary, which is called Kulīpaya in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā,² and Purīkaya in the Atharvaveda,³ variants probably due to the faulty tradition of an unfamiliar name.

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1 v. 5, 13, 1.
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hitā, iii. 14, 2. See Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 624.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 96.

Kulīkā is the name of a bird mentioned in the list of victims at the horse sacrifice in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhirā.¹ The Maitrā-yaṇī Saṃhitā² has Pulīkā instead.

Kulunga is the name of an animal, perhaps a gazelle, mentioned in the list of victims at the horse sacrifice in the Yajurveda.¹

¹ Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 11, 1; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 9. 13 (with the variant Kulaṅga); Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 27. 32.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 83.

Kulmala seems, in the Atharvaveda, the Maitrāyanī Samhitā, and the Śatapatha Brāhmana, to denote the neck of an arrow in which the shaft is fixed.

Kumala-barhis is mentioned in the Paucavimsa Brāhmaņa (xv. 3, 21) as the seer of a Sāman or Chant.

Kumāra Hārita is mentioned in the first Vamsa (list of teachers) in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad¹ as a pupil of Gālava.

1 ii. 5, 22 (Mādhyaṃdina=ii. 6, 3, Kāṇva).

Kulmāṣa, a word mentioned by the Chāndogya Upaniṣad¹ in the plural, is interpreted by the commentator as 'bad beans' (kutsitā māṣāḥ), a version adopted by Böhtlingk in his ¹ i. 10, 2. 7.

² xxiv. 21. 35.

³ xi. 2, 25. The commentator reads Pulīkaya, as in the Maitrāyaņī Sam-

Dictionary.² Little³ renders it 'sour gruel' in accordance with the Nirukta.4

² Cf. Bhāgavata Purāṇa, v. 9, 12, where it is glossed 'worm-eaten beans.'

3 Grammatical Index, 52.

Kulyā in two passages of the Rigveda, according to Muir, 2 possibly refers to artificial watercourses flowing into a reservoir (hrada). See Avata.

1 iii. 45, 3; x. 43, 7.

2 Sanskrit Texts, 5, 465, 466.

Kuvaya. See Kvayi.

Kuvala is a name of the jujube fruit (Zizyphus jujuba) occurring frequently in the Yajurveda Samhitas1 and Brahmanas2 in connexion with Karkandhu and Badara. See also Kola.

1 Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 11, 2; 1 Maitrayani Samhita, xix. 22, 89; xxi. 29; Kāthaka Samhitā, xii. 10.

² Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 5, 4, 10; xii. 7, 1, 2; 2, 9; 9, 1, 5, etc. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 242.

Kuśa, a word later denoting the 'sacred grass' (Poa cynosuroides), is taken by the St. Petersburg Dictionary to mean simply 'grass' in the passages of the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa in which it occurs.

etc. Kuśā and Kuśī occur in Maitrā-yaṇī Saṃhitā, iv. 5, 7; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 6, 2, 9; Taittirīya denoting pins of wood or metal, used as a mark in a special mode of recita-tion.

1 ii. 5, 2, 15; iii. 1, 2, 16; v. 3, 2, 7, | Brāhmaņa, i. 5, 10, 1. 2. 7, apparently

Ku-śara is mentioned with Sara and other grasses in one hymn of the Rigveda¹ as affording lurking places for serpents.

1 i. 191, 3. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 72.

Kuśika is the probably mythical forefather 1 of the Kuśikas, and especially the father of the most important member of that family, Viśvāmitra.2 The Kuśikas are repeatedly referred

¹ Nirukta, ii. 25.

to in the third Maṇḍala of the Rigveda,³ and figure in the legend of Śunaḥśepa in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.⁴ They were clearly a family of priests who attached themselves to the service of the princes of the Bharatas. They were especially devoted to the worship of Indra; hence he is styled Kauśika even in the Rigveda.⁵

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<sup>3</sup> iii. 26, 1; 29, 15; 30, 20; 33, 5; 42, 9; 50, 4; 53, 9. 10.
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4 vii. 18; Sānkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xv. 27.

⁵ i. 10, 11, with Sāyaṇa's note. 3, 101, 11 Cf. Maitrāyaṇī Samhitā, iv. 5, 7; ture, 15, Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 3, 4, Deutscher 19; Taittirīya Āraṇyaka, i. 12, 4; 42, 209.

Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, pp. 62, 63. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 38; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 12, 342 et seq.; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 101, 121; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 155; Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 200.

Kuśri Vāja-śravasa appears as a teacher concerned with the lore of the sacred fire in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,¹ and in the last Vaṃśa (list of teachers) of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad² he is mentioned as a pupil of Vājaśravas. It is not clear whether he is identical with the Kuśri of the last Vaṃśa of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka³ in the Kāṇva recension, and of the Vaṃśa in the tenth book of the Śatapatha,⁴ who is mentioned as a pupil of Yajñavacas Rājastambāyana.

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1 x. 5, 5, 1.
2 vi. 4, 23 (Mādhyamdina = vi.
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² vi. 4, 33 (Mādhyamdina = vi. 5, 3, Kānva).

3 vi. 5, 4 (Kānva only).

4 x. 6, 5, 9. In the Vamsas the name

is accented Kúśri, but in x. 5, 5, 1, as Kuśri; no stress can, however, be laid on this. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 70; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, xxxiii.

Ku-ṣaṇḍa is mentioned with Ṣaṇḍa as a priest at the snake festival described in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.¹

1 xxv. 15, 3. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 34; Lāţyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, x. 20, 10.

1. Kuṣītaka denotes, according to the commentary on the one passage of the Taittirīya Saṃhitā¹ in which it is found, the sea crow (samudra-kāka).

1 v. 5, 13, 1. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 72.

2. Kuṣītaka Sāma-śravasa is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa¹ as the Gṛhapati, or householder at a sacrificial session, of the Kauṣītakis.

1 xvii. 4. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 34.

Kuṣumbhaka seems in one passage of the Rigveda¹ to mean a poisonous insect, Kuṣumbha in the Atharvaveda² clearly having the sense of a poison bag. Sāyaṇa renders it as 'ichneumon' (nakula).

1 i. 191, 16. The sense of 'poison-bag' is possible in i. 191, 15, and is accepted there by Böhtlingk in his Dictionary.

² ii. 32, 6. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 99; Griffith, Hymns of the Rigveda, 1, 257.

1. Kuṣṭha is the name of a plant (Costus speciosus or arabicus)1 which is prominent in the Atharvaveda.2 It grew especially on the mountains, along with the Soma, on the high peaks of the Himālaya (Himavant) where the eagles nest, and was thence brought east to men.3 Like Soma, it is said to have grown in the third heaven under the famous Asvattha tree, where the gods were wont to assemble, and thence it was brought in a golden ship.4 As a remedy, it held the highest place among herbs, being called by the auspicious names Nagha-mara and Naghā-riṣa, and styled the offspring of Jīvala and Jīvalā, the 'lively' ones.5 It cured headache (śīrṣāmaya), diseases of the eyes, bodily affliction,6 but especially fever-hence called 'feverdestroyer' (takma-nāśana)—and consumption (Yakṣma). From its general properties it was also named 'all-healing' (viśvabhesaja).7 Its aromatic qualities were apparently known, as it is classed with 'salve' (Anjana) and 'nard' (Nalada).8

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<sup>1</sup> Or Saussurea auriculata, Hillebrandt,
Vedische Mythologie, 1, 65.
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2. Kuṣṭha.—In one passage of the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā¹ there is a series of fractions, Kalā, Kuṣṭha, Śapha, Pad, which appear to denote one-sixteenth, one-twelfth, one-eighth, and one-fourth respectively.

² v. 4; vi. 102; xix. 139.

³ v. 4, 1. 2. 8; xix. 39, 1.

⁴ v. 4, 3-6; vi. 75, 1. 2; xix. 39, 6-8.

⁵ v. 4, 1; xix. 39, 4.

⁶ v. 4, 10.

⁷ xix. 39, 9.8 vi. 102, 3.

Cf. Grohmann, Indische Studien, 9, 420 et seq.; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 63, 64; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 415, 680; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 227, 228.

¹ iii. 7. 7. Cf. Böhtlingk, Dictionary, s.v.

Kusīdin is a designation of the 'usurer' tound in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ and the Nirukta,² and often in the Sūtras. Jolly,³ referring doubtless to the expression kusīda apratītta,⁴ 'a loan not yet repaid,' occurring in connexion with an-ṛṇa, 'free from debt,' appears to be right in taking Kusīda to have the sense of 'loan' in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā. The rate of interest on loans is not specified before the Sūtra period.⁵ Cf. Rṇa.

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1 xiii. 4, 3, 11.
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Kusurubinda Auddālaki appears as an authority on ritual matters in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa,¹ the Taittirīya Saṃhitā,² the Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa,³ and the Ṣaḍviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.⁴ He may have been the brother of Śvetaketu, as suggested by Weber.⁵

Kuhū. See Māsa.

Kūcakra is a word occurring only once in an obscure verse of the Rigveda, where Zimmer² suggests that it has the sense of the wheel by which water is raised from a well. Much more probable is the interpretation of Roth, who understands it to mean the female breast.

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1 x. 102, 11.
2 Altindisches Leben, 157. Cf. Geldner,
Vedische Studien, 2, 14.
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Kūţa, a word found in the Rigveda, the Atharvaveda, and the Brāhmaṇas, is of doubtful signification. On the whole,

² vi. 32.

³ Recht und Sitte, 98, 99.

⁴ iii. 3, 8, 1. 2.

⁵ E.g., Gautama Sūtra, xii. 29 et seq. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 259.

⁴ xxii. 15, 1. 10.

² vii. 2, 2, I.

³ i. 75 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 23, 327), where the reading seems to be Asurbinda.

⁴ i. 16. See Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 39. The name is there read as Kusurubindu; in the Śāńkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 22, 14 it is Kusurabindu.

⁵ Indische Studien, 5, 61, n.

³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

¹ x. 102, 4.

² viii. 8, 16.

³ Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vi. 24; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, iii. 8, 1, 15; Jai-

minīya Brāhmaņa, i. 49, 9; 50, 2 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 19, 114).

the most probable sense is hammer,⁴ which suits every passage adequately. The St. Petersburg Dictionary renders it 'horn,' which is the sense accepted by Whitney⁵ for the Atharvaveda passage where it occurs. Geldner⁶ thinks that it means 'trap.'

4 So Bloomfield, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 546; Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 585.
5 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 505.

6 Vedische Studien, 1, 138; 2, 7. Cf. von Bradke, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 46, 458; Kuhn's Zeitschrift, 34, 156; Weber, Indische Studien, 9, 222.

Kūdī, written also Kūtī in the manuscripts, occurs in the Atharvaveda¹ and the Kauśika Sūtra² denoting a twig—identified by the scholiast with Badarī, the jujube—which was tied to the bodies of the dead to efface their traces, presumably in order to render the return of the spirit to the old home difficult.

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1 v. 19, 12.
2 Bloomfield's edition, xliv. Cf.
Bloomfield, American Journal of Philology,
11, 355; 12, 416; Roth, Festgruss an
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Böhtlingk, 98; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 254; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 165.

Kūpa occurs in the Rigveda¹ and later literature² denoting an artificial hollow in the earth, or pit. In some cases they must have been deep, as Trita in the myth is said to have fallen into one from which he could not escape unaided.³

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1 i. 105, 17.

2 Av. v. 31, 8; Śatapatha Brāh-

maṇa, iii. 5, 4, 1; iv. 4, 5, 3; vi. 3, 3,

26, etc.; Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 184,
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etc. The adjective $k\bar{u}pya$, 'being in a hole,' occurs frequently in the later Samhitās.

3 Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 67.

Kūbara in the Maitrāyanī Samhitā (ii. 1, 11) and Kūbarī in the Satapatha Brāhmana (iv. 6, 9, 11. 12) and the Kauṣītaki Brāhmana (xxvii. 6) denote the pole of a cart.

Kūrca is found in the Taittirīya Samhitā¹ and later² denoting a bundle of grass used as a seat. In one passage of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa³ a golden Kūrca is referred to.

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    vii. 5, 8, 5.
    2 Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, xi. 5, 3, 4, 7;
    Brhadāranyaka Upanişad, ii. 11, 1;
    Aitareya Āranyaka, v. 1, 4.
    xiii. 4, 3, 1.
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Kūrma, the 'tortoise,' is mentioned frequently in the later Samhitās¹ and Brāhmaṇas,² but nothing is said of its characteristics. See also Kasyapa.

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1 Av. ix. 4, 16; l'aittirīya Samhitā, ii. 6, 3, 3; v. 2, 8, 4, 5; 7, 13, 1; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 15, 3; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 34, etc.
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Kūśāmba Svāyava Lātavya is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa¹ as a priest. His name apparently means² Kūśāmba,³ of the Lātavya clan, son of Svāyu.

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1 viii. 6, 8.
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Kṛkalāsa denotes the 'chameleon' mentioned in the list of sacrificial victims at the horse sacrifice in the Yajurveda¹ and later.² The female chameleon, Kṛkalāsī, is also referred to in the Brāhmaṇas.³ See Godhā and Śayaṇḍaka.

² Brhadaranyaka Upanisad, i. 5, 22.

³ Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, i, 221 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 18, 29); Sāṭyāyanaka in Sāyaṇa on Rv. vili. 91.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 95.

Kṛka-vāku, the 'cock,' being named in the Atharvaveda¹ with sheep, goats, and other domesticated animals, was presumably tamed.² In the list of victims at the horse sacrifice in the Yajurveda,³ it appears as dedicated to Savitṛ: Yāska⁴ explains this by the fact that it declares the time of day (kālānuvāda). The commentator Mahīdhara⁵ explains the name by tāmra-cūḍa, 'red-crested.' It is of course onomatopoetic ('calling kṛka').⁵ See also Kukkuṭa.

² Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 2, 3; vi. 1, 1, 12, etc.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 95; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 153.

² The form is peculiar, as Kuśāmba would be expected.

³ Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15. 55. n. 2.

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 19, 1; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 21; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 40.

¹ v. 31, 2. Cf. x. 136, 10.

² Cf., however, Sāyana on Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 18, 1, who says that it is a 'forest' Kukkuta.

³ Taittirīya Samhitā, loc. cit.; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 15; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 35.

⁴ Nirukta, xii. 3.

⁵ On Vājasaneyi Samhitā, loc. cit.
6 Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities,

^{251;} Weber, Indische Studien, 18,

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 91.

Krta. See 2. Akşa and 2. Yuga.

Kṛti.—From one passage in the Rigveda,¹ where the Maruts are described as having Kṛtis, Zimmer² concludes that the word means a dagger used in war. But there is no evidence that Kṛti was ever a human weapon. See Asi.

1 i. 168, 3.

Krttikās. See Naksatra.

Kṛtvan.—In one passage of the Rigveda¹ the word Kṛtvan in the plural is mentioned with the Ārjīkas and the five peoples. Pischel² thinks that it means a people, and Sāyaṇa expressly says that the Kṛtvans designate a country.³ The name in that case would point to some connexion with the Kurus or Krivis. Hillebrandt,⁴ however, thinks that the word is an adjective which qualifies Ārjīkas and designates this people as magicians, being applied to them by an opponent. In favour of this view, he quotes Hiouen Thsang's statement⁵ that the neighbouring kings held the base Kaśmīrians in such scorn as to refuse all alliance with them, and to give them the name of Ki-li-to, or Kṛtyas. He suggests that the Ārjīkas settled in Kaśmīr in ancient times already had the same evil reputation as their successors in later days.

1 ix. 65, 23.

2 Vedische Studien, 2, 209.

3 Krtvāna iti deśābhidhānam.

4 Vedische Mythologie, 1, 136, 137.

5 Cunningham, Ancient Geography of India, 93.

Cf. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Kṛpa is mentioned in the Rigveda,¹ along with Ruśama and Śyāvaka, as a protégé of Indra.

1 viii. 3, 12; 4, 2. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 162.

Kṛmi, 'worm.' In the later Samhitās, and especially in the Atharvaveda, worms play a considerable part. They are

1 Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 11, 1; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 14, 11; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 30; Mantra Brāhmaņa, ii. 7; Taittirīya Āraņyaka, iv. 36;

Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 4, 1, 2; and cf. Rv. i. 191,

² ii. 31. 32; v. 23.

² Altindisches Leben, 301. Cf. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 221.

regarded as poisonous, and are spoken of as found in the mountains, in forests, in waters, in plants, and in the human body. In accordance with widespread primitive ideas, they are considered to be the causes of disease in men and animals. The Atharvaveda contains three hymns² as charms directed against them. The first of these hymns is of a general character, the second is meant to destroy worms in cattle, and the third is intended to cure children of worms. When found in men, worms are said to have their place in the head and ribs,³ and to creep into the eyes, nose, and teeth.⁴ They are described as dark brown, but white in the fore part of the body, with black ears, and as having three heads.⁵ They are given many specific names: Alāṇḍu, Ejatka, Kaṣkaṣa, Kīṭa, Kurūru, Nīlaṅgu, Yevāṣa, Vaghā, Vṛkṣasarpī, Śaluna, Śavarta, Śipavitnuka, Stega.

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3 Av. ii. 31, 4.
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Sprachforschung, 13, 49 et seq.; 113 et seq.; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 313 et seq.; Weber, Indische Studien, 13, 199; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 73.

Kṛmuka is the name in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā¹ and the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa² of a species of wood used for fuel.³

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^{1} xix, 10. ^{3} Ibid. (Krāmuka as applied to ^{2} vi. 6, 2, 11. ^{3} Ibid. (Krāmuka as applied to
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Kṛśa is mentioned with Saṃvarta as a pious sacrificer to Indra in one of the Vālakhilya hymns of the Rigveda¹ and in another² as a speaker of truth, while a third is traditionally³ ascribed to his authorship. He seems also to be mentioned with Śayu as a protégé of the Aśvins in another hymn of the Rigveda,⁴ but here the word may merely denote the 'feeble man.¹⁵

⁴ Av. v. 23, 3. ⁵ Av. v. 23, 4 et seq.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 98, 393; Kuhn, Zeitschrift für vergleichende

¹ yiii. 54, 2. ² viii. 59, 3.

³ Indische Studien, 1, 293, n.

^{*} x. 40, 8.

⁵ Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 132, 164.

Kṛśana, 'pearl.' In the Rigveda pearls are mentioned as adorning the car of Savitṛ¹ as well as being used for the adornment of a horse.² Hence the horse is spoken of as the 'pearled one' (kṛśanāvant).³ The Atharvaveda⁴ also refers to pearls, and mentions that 'pearl shell' (śaūkhaḥ kṛśanaḥ) won from the sea was used as an amulet.⁵ The Nighaṇṭu⁶ renders the word as 'gold.'

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1 i. 35. 4.
2 x. 68, 1.
3 i. 126, 4. Cf. kṛśanin, vii. 18, 23.
4 x. 1, 7.
5 iv. 10, 1. 3.
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6 i. 2. Cf. Sāma Mantra Brāhmaņa, 6, 22.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 53, 54; Lanman in Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 161.

Kṛśānu appears in the Rigveda as a mythological personage.¹ In one verse,² however, Roth³ sees in this word the name of a bowman, but there seems no reason to dissociate this passage from the rest.

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<sup>1</sup> Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, pp. 74, 112, 137; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 448.
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² i. 112, 21.

3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., 4.

Kṛṣi, 'ploughing.' The cultivation of the soil was no doubt known to the Indians before they separated from the Iranians, as is indicated by the identity of the expressions yavam kṛṣ and sasya in the Rigveda with yao karesh and hahya in the Avesta, referring to the ploughing in of the seed and to the grain which resulted.¹ But it is not without significance that the expressions for ploughing occur mainly in the first² and tenth³ books of the Rigveda, and only rarely in the so-called 'family' books (ii.-vii.).⁴ In the Atharvaveda Pṛthī Vainya is credited with the origination of ploughing,⁵ and even in the Rigveda the Aśvins are spoken of as concerned with the sowing of grain by means of the plough.⁶ In the later Saṃhitās and the Brāhmaṇas ploughing is repeatedly referred to.¹

1 Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 235; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 85.

² Forms of the root kṛṣ, 'to plough,' occur in Rv. i. 23, 15; 176, 2.

³ Rv. x. 34, 13; 117, 7. In x. 146, 6, akṛṣīvala, 'not agricultural,' occurs. Cf. x. 101, 4.

4 Krs is also found in viii. 20, 19; 22, 6; in the family books only in iv. 57, 4, and as vi-hrs in iv. 57, 8.

⁵ viii, 10, 24. ⁶ i. 117, 21. ⁷ Kṛṣi is found, e.g., in Av. ii. 4, 5; viii. 2, 19; 10, 24; x. 6, 12; xii. 2, 27, etc.; Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 1, 11, 1, etc.; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iv. 10; ix. 22; xiv. 19. 21, etc.; Šatapatha Brāhmaņa, vii. 2, 2, 7; viii. 6, 2, 2; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 1, 2, 5, etc. In Av. vi. 116, 1, kūṛṣivaṇa denotes a 'plougher.' See also Kārsman.

Even in the Rigveda⁸ there is clear proof of the importance attached to agriculture. In the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa⁹ the Vrātyas, Hindus without the pale of Brahminism, are described as not cultivating the soil.

The plough land was called Urvarā or Kṣetra; manure (Śakan, Karīṣa) was used, and irrigation was practised (Khanitra). The plough (Lāngala, Sīra) was drawn by oxen, teams of six, eight, or even twelve being employed. The operations of agriculture are neatly summed up in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹¹ as 'ploughing, sowing, reaping, and threshing' (kṛṣantaḥ, vapantaḥ, lunantaḥ, mṛṇantaḥ). The ripe grain was cut with a sickle (Dātra, Sṛṇi), bound into bundles¹² (Parṣa), and beaten out on the floor of the granary (Khala).¹³ The grain was then separated from the straw and refuse either by a sieve (Titau) or a winnowing fan (Śūrpa).¹⁴ The winnower was called Dhānyākṛt,¹⁵ and the grain was measured in a vessel called Urdara.¹⁰

The Rigveda leaves us in doubt as to the kind of grain grown, for Yava is a word of doubtful signification, and Dhānā is also vague. In the later Saṃhitās¹⁷ things are different. Rice (Vrīhi) appears, Yava means barley, with a species styled Upavāka. Beans (Mudga, Māṣa), sesamum (Tila), and other grains (Aṇu, Khalva, Godhūma, Nīvāra, Priyaṅgu, Masūra, Śyāmāka) are mentioned, while cucumbers (Urvārū, Urvārūka) were known. It is uncertain whether fruit trees (Vṛkṣa) were cultivated, or merely grew wild; but frequent mention is made of the jujube (Karkandhu, Kuvala, Badara).

The seasons for agriculture are briefly summed up in a passage of the Taittirīya Saṃhitā: 19 barley ripened in summer, being no doubt sown, as in modern India, in winter; rice

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8 x. 34, 13; 117, 7. Cf. Hopkins, India, Old and New, 208.
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⁹ xvii. I.

¹⁰ Av. vi. 91, 1; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xv. 2. Cf. Rv. viii. 6, 48; x. 101, 4.

¹¹ i. 6, 1, 3.

¹² viii. 78, 10; x. 101, 3; 131, 2.

¹³ Rv. x. 48, 7.

¹⁴ Rv. x. 71, 2; Av. xii. 3, 19. The technical terms are tusair vi-vic, Av. xi. 1, 12; palāvān apa-vic, xii. 3, 19.

¹⁵ Rv. x. 94, 13.

¹⁶ Rv. ii. 14, 11. See also Sthivi.

¹⁷ See Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xviii. 12, for a list.

¹⁸ The pulling of ripe fruit is referred to in Rv. iii. 45, 4. Cf. pakvā śākhā, Rv. i. 8, 8; vṛkṣa pakva, Rv. iv. 20, 5; Av. xx. 127, 4. But that does not prove arboriculture.

¹⁹ vii. 2, 10, 2.

ripened in autumn, being sown in the beginning of the rains; beans and sesamum, planted at the time of the summer rains, ripened in the winter and the cool season. There were two harvests (Sasya) a year according to the Taittirīya Saṃhitā; ²⁰ the winter crop was ripe by the month of Caitra (March-April) according to the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa.²¹

The farmer had plenty of trouble of his own: moles destroyed the seed, birds and various kinds of reptiles (Upakvasa, Jabhya, Tarda, Patanga) injured the young shoots, excessive rain or drought might damage the crops. The Atharvaveda contains spells to prevent these evils.²²

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20 v. 1, 7, 3.
21 xix. 3. Cf. Keith, Śānkhāyana Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 235-
Āraņyaka, S1, n. 1.
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Kṛṣṭi denotes 'people' in general from the Rigveda¹ onwards. Its common and regular use in this sense appears to show that the Āryans, when they invaded India, were already agriculturists, though the employment of the words referring to ploughing mentioned under Kṛṣi indicates that not all of the people devoted themselves equally to that occupation. Indra and Agni are par excellence the lords of men (Kṛṣṭi).² Sometimes the word is further defined by the addition of an adjective meaning 'belonging to mankind,' 'of men' (mānuṣīḥ,³ mānavīḥ).⁴

Special mention is frequently made of the 'five peoples' (pañca kṛṣṭayaḥ). The exact sense of this expression is doubtful. See Panca Janāsaḥ.

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1 i. 52, 11; 100, 10; 160, 5; 189, 3; iii. 49, 1; iv. 21, 2, etc.; Av. xii. 1, 3. 4.

2 i. 177, 1; iv. 17, 5; vii. 26, 5; viii. 13, 9 (Indra); i. 59, 5; vi. 18, 2; vii. 5, 5 (Agni).
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4 Av. iii. 24, 3.

5 Rv. ii. 2, 10; iii. 53, 16; iv. 38, 10;

x. 60, 4; 119, 6; 178, 3; Av. iii. 24, 2;
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3 Rv. i. 59, 5; vi. 18, 2.

xii. 1, 42.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 141.

1. Kṛṣṇa ('black') denotes a dark-coloured animal or bird. In some passages, as the context shows, an antelope is certainly

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1 Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 2, 6, 5;
vi. 1, 3, 1; Šatapatha Brāhmaņa, i. 1,
4, 1; iii. 2, 1, 28. So kṛṣṇa-viṣāṇā,
'horn of the black antelope,' ibid.,
iii. 2, 1, 18. 28; 2, 20; iv. 4, 5, 2;
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v. 4, 2, 5; Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 1, 3,7. See also the Asvamedha passages, Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 17; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 36 (cf. ii. 1).

meant. In a few others² a bird of prey seems indicated. See also Krsnājina.

² Rv. x. 94, 5; Av. xi. 2, 2; Śāńkhāyana Āraņyaka, xii. 27.

- 2. Krsna appears as the name of a seer in one hymn of the Rigveda.1 Tradition assigns to him or to Viśvaka, son of Kṛṣṇa (Kārṣṇi), the authorship of the following hymn.2 The word Krsniya may be a patronymic3 formed from the same name in two other hymns of the Rigveda,4 where the Aśvins are said to have restored Visnāpū to Viśvaka Kṛṣṇiya. In that case Kṛṣṇa would seem to be the grandfather of Viṣṇāpū. This Kṛṣṇa may be identical with Kṛṣṇa Āṅgirasa mentioned in the Kausītaki Brāhmana.5
 - 1 viii. 85, 3, 4.
 - ² viii. 86.

3 i. 116, 23; 117, 7.

isolated formation (cf. however Papriya), ology, p. 52.

instead of Kārsnya. Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, 228a and 200. 5 xxx. 9. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rig-As a patronymic, it would be an veda, 3, 108; Macdonell, Vedic Myth-

3. Krsna Devaki-putra is mentioned in the Chandogya Upanisad1 as a pupil of the mythical Ghora Angirasa. Tradition,2 and several modern writers like Grierson, Garbe, and von Schroeder, recognize in him the hero Kṛṣṇa, who later is deified. In their view he is a Kşatriya teacher of morals, as opposed to Brahminism.3 This is extremely doubtful. It appears better either to regard the coincidence of name as accidental, or to suppose that the reference is a piece of Euhemerism. To identify this Kṛṣṇa with the preceding, as does the St. Petersburg Dictionary, seems to be quite groundless.

1 iii. 17, 6. Literature. Indian 2 Cf. Weber, 169.

3 Von Schroeder, Vienna Oriental Journal, 19, 414, 415; Grierson, Encyclopædia of Religions, article 'Bhakti': Garbe, Bhagavadgitā.

Cf. Weber, op. cit., 71; 148; Hopkins. Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1905. 386.

4. Kṛṣṇa Hārīta is mentioned as a teacher in the Aitareya Āraņyaka. The Śāńkhāyana Āraņyaka has Kṛtsna in the parallel passage.

1 iii. 2. 6. 2 viii. 10.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 391, n.; Indian Literature, 50.

Kṛṣṇa-datta Lauhitya ('descendant of Lohita') is mentioned in a Vamsa (list of teachers) of the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmana (iii. 42, 1) as a pupil of Śyāmasujayanta Lauhitya.

Krsna-dhrti Sātyaki ('descendant of Satyaka') is mentioned in a Vamsa (list of teachers) of the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmana (iii. 42, 1) as a pupil of Satyaśravas.

Kṛṣṇa-rāta Lauhitya ('descendant of Lohita') is mentioned in a Vamsa (list of teachers) of the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmana (iii. 42, 1) as a pupil of Śyāmaiajayanta Lauhitya.

Krsnala denotes the berry of the Abrus precatorius, used as a weight according to the later authorities, one Masa ('bean') being equated to four Kṛṣṇalas.1 In the sense of a weight it occurs in the Taittirīya2 and other Samhitās,3 and later.4

- ¹ Manu, viii. 134. 2 ii. 3, 2, 1 et seq.
- 3 Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 2, 2; Kāthaka Samhitā, xi. 4 (hiranya kṛṣṇala).

Anupada Sūtra, ix. 6. In the later language it is also called raktikā or guñjā (being a smooth red berry with a black spot at one end).

Cf. Weber's edition of the Jyotisa, 82 4 Taittiriya Brahmana, i. 3. 6, 7; et seq. ; Indische Streifen, 1, 102, 103.

Kṛṣṇājina is the skin (ajina) of the black antelope (Kṛṣṇa.) It is repeatedly referred to in the later Samhitas and Brahmanas1 with regard to its ritual use.

1 Av. ix. 6, 17; Taittirīya Samhitā, | Brāhmana, i. 1, 1, 22; 4, 1; 9, 2, 35, ii. 4, 9, 2; v. 4, 4, 4; Satapatha etc.

Kṛṣṇāyasa ('black metal'), 'iron,' is referred to in the Chāndogya Upanisad (vi. 1, 6). See also Ayas and Kārṣṇāyasa.

Kṛṣara, a term denoting a mess of rice and sesamum, often mentioned in the Sūtras, occurs in the Sadvimsa Brāhmaņa.1

1 v. 2. Cf. Weber, Omina und Portenta, 315 et seq.

Kekaya is the name of a tribe which in later days, and probably also in Vedic times, was settled in the north-west, between the Sindhu (Indus) and Vitastā.¹ In the Vedic texts the Kekayas are mentioned indirectly only in the name of their prince Aśvapati Kaikeya.²

- 1 Pargiter, Journal of the Royal Asiatic 2 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, x. 6, 1, 2 Society, 1908, 317, 332. et seq.; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 11, 4. Cf. Weber, Indian Literature, 120; Indische Studien, 1, 126.
- 1. Ketu is a term which Weber¹ understands in the sense of 'meteor' or 'comet' in the late Adbhuta Brāhmaṇa.
- 1 Indische Studien, 1, 41. The arunāle Dictionary, are not so treated by hetavale (Av. xi. 10, 1, 2, 7), referred to in this sense in the St. Petersburg
- 2. Ketu Vājya ('descendant of Vāja') is mentioned as a teacher in the Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa.¹

1 Indische Studien, 4, 372.

Kevarta, Kaivarta are two variant forms denoting 'fisherman' in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā¹ and Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa² lists of victims at the Puruṣamedha, or human sacrifice.

1 xxx. 16, with Mahidhara's note. 2 iii. 4, 12, 1, with Sāyaṇa's note.

Keśa, 'hair of the head,' is repeatedly mentioned in the later Samhitās and Brāhmaṇas.¹ The hair was a matter of great care to the Vedic Indian, and several hymns of the Atharvaveda² are directed to securing its plentiful growth. Cutting or shaving (vap) the hair is often referred to.³ For a man to wear long hair was considered effeminate.⁴ As to modes of dressing the hair see Opaśa and Kaparda; as to the beard see Śmaśru.

- 1 Av. v. 19, 3; vi. 136, 3, etc.; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 22; xx. 5; xxv. 3; Satapatha Brana, ii. 5, 2, 48, etc.
- ² vi. 136. 137. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 68; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 536, 537.
- ³ Av. viii. 2, 17; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 5, 3, 1, etc. *Cf.* Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 425 et seq.
- ⁴ Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 1, 2, 14. But cf. Vincent Smith, Indian Antiquary, 34, 203.
- r. Keśin is the name of a people occurring in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,¹ where their king is mentioned as learning from Khaṇdika the atonement for a bad omen at the sacrifice.
- 1 xi. 8, 4, 6. Cf. Pāṇini, vi. 4, 165; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 131, 134.

2. Keśin Dārbhya¹ or Dālbhya² ('descendant of Darbha') is a somewhat enigmatic figure. According to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa³ and the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa⁴ he was a king, sister's son of Uccaiḥśravas, according to the latter authority. His people were the Pañcālas, of whom the Keśins must therefore have been a branch, and who are said to have been threefold (tryanīka).⁵ A story is told of his having a ritual dispute with Ṣaṇḍika in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā⁰; this appears in another form in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.³ He was a contemporary of a fellow sage, Keśin Sātyakāmi, according to the Maitrāyaṇī and Taittirīya⁵ Saṃhitās. The Paňcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa⁰ attributes to him a Sāman or chant, and the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa⁰ tells how he was taught by a golden bird.

In view of the fact that the early literature always refers to Dārbhya as a sage, it seems doubtful whether the commentator is right in thinking that the Satapatha refers to a king and a people, when a sage alone may well be meant, while the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa is of no great authority. The latter work may have assumed that the reference in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā 11 to the Keśin people signifies kingship, but this is

hardly necessary.

¹ This is the form of the name in the Jaiminīya Upanişad Brāhmaņa, the Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, the Taittirīya Samhitā, and the Kauşītaki Brāhmaņa; also later in the Brhaddevatā.

² This is the form in the Kāthaka Samhitā and the Pañcavimśa Brāhmana. It also appears later in the

Rigveda Anukramani.

3 xi. 8, 4, 1 et seq., as explained by Săyana.

4 iii. 29, I et seq.

⁵ Kāthaka Samhitā, xxx. 2 (Weber, Indische Studien, 3, 471); Jaiminīya

Upanişad Brāhmaņa, loc. cit.; Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xx. 25.

⁶ i. 4, 12 (von Schroeder gives no variant reading; but s and kh are constantly confused in manuscripts).

⁷ i. 6, 5.

8 ii. 6, 2, 3.

⁹ xiii. 10, 8.

¹⁰ vii. 4. ¹¹ xxx, 2.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 193, 209; 2, 308; Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 58, 59; Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 62, n. 2.

3. Keśin Sātya-kāmi ('descendant of Satyakāma') is mentioned as a teacher and contemporary of Keśin Dārbhya in the Taittirīya (ii. 6, 2, 3) and Maitrāyaṇī (i. 6, 5) Saṃhitās.

Kesara-prābandhā.—In the list of the crimes of the Vaita-havyas narrated in the Atharvaveda¹ is the cooking of the last she-goat (caramājām) of Kesaraprābandhā, who may presumably be deemed to have been a woman, 'having braided hair.' Ludwig, followed by Whitney, appears to amend the passage (carama-jām) as meaning 'the last-born calf' of Kesaraprābandhā, a cow. But this interpretation does not suit the name so well.

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<sup>1</sup> v. 18, 11.

<sup>2</sup> Bloomfield, Hymns of the Athar-

<sup>3</sup> Translation of the Rigveda, 2, 447.

<sup>4</sup> Translation of the Atharvaveda, vaveda, 432, 433.
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Kaikeya, 'king of the Kekayas,' is an epithet of Aśvapati.1

1 Śatapatha Brāhmana, x. 6, 1, 2; Chāndogya Upanişad, v. 11, 4.

Kairāta is the name of a snake in the Atharvaveda 1—possibly, but not probably, the modern Karait.

1 v. 13, 5. Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 243.

Kairātikā, a 'maiden of the Kirāta people,' is mentioned in the Atharvaveda (x. 4, 14) as digging up roots for medicinal use.

Kairiśi, 'descendant of Kiriśa,' is the patronymic of Sutvan in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (viii. 28).

Kaivarta. See Kevarta.

Kaiśinī.—The Kaiśinyaḥ prajāḥ, 'offspring or people¹ of Keśin,' are mentioned in an obscure passage of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa² either as still existing at the date of the Brāhmaṇa³ or as extinct.

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1 So Sāyaṇa.

2 Xi. 8, 4, 6.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 208.
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Kaiśorya, 'descendant of Kaiśori,' is the patronymic of Kāpya in the first two Vaṃśas (lists of teachers) in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.¹

¹ ii. 5, 22; iv. 5, 28 (Mādhyamdina = ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3 Kānva).

1. Koka, a word occurring in the Rigveda 1 and the Atharvaveda.2 seems to denote the 'cuckoo.' In all the three passages in which it is found, Sāyaṇa explains it as the Cakravāka. Roth³ renders it in the Atharvaveda passages as a certain destructive parasitic animal. Cf. Anyavapa.

the shape of a cuckoo).

² v. 23, 4; viii. 6, 2.

3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., 6. Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Athar-

1 vii. 104, 22 (koka-yātu, a ghost in | vaveda, 454; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 262; Geldner, Rigveda, Glossar, 49; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 92.

2. Koka is mentioned in the Satapatha Brāhmaņa (xiii. 5, 4, 17) as a son of the Pañcāla king, Sātrāsāha.

Kokila, a very frequent word in the Epic and later, denoting the cuckoo, is only inferred for the Vedic period from its being the name of a Rājaputra in the Kāthaka Anukramaņī.1

1 Weber, Indische Studien, 3, 460.

Koneya, Kauneya. See Rajana.

Kola, another form of Kuvala, the Zizyphus jujuba, is mentioned in the Chandogya Upanisad (vii. 3, 1).

1. Kośa is the name in the Rigveda¹ for the 'bucket' used in drawing water by means of a rope from a well (Avata). In the ritual2 it denotes a large vessel to hold Soma, as opposed to Kalaśa.

1 i. 130, 2; iii. 32, 15; iv. 17, 6. Cf. | Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 156. 183 et seq. ² Rv. ix. 75, 3; Av. xviii. 4, 30, etc.

2. Kośa denotes the body of a chariot. Presumably it was fastened to the axles, but it was probably not very secure, as the body of Pūṣan's chariot is said not to fall.2 The ropes3 used to fasten the Kośa are perhaps referred to in the word aksā-nah.4 By synecdoche this word also denotes the whole chariot.5 See also Vandhura, Ratha.

¹ Rv. i. 87, 2; x. 85, 7, etc.

² Rv. vi. 54, 3.

³ Gāvah, Rv. viii. 48, 5.

⁴ See under 1. Akşa.

⁵ Rv. viii. 20, 8; 22, 9.

Cf. Zimmer, op. cit., 246.

3. Kośa.—The exact sense of this word in Kośa-kārī, the designation of a female victim at the Puruṣamedha, or human sacrifice, is uncertain. It may be 'sheath.'

¹ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 14; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 10, 1.

Koṣa.—The Koṣas appear as a priestly family in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, where one of them, Suśravas, is mentioned by name.²

¹ x. 5, 5, 8. ² x. 5, 5, ¹

Kosala is the name of a people not occurring in the earliest Vedic literature. In the story of the spread of Āryan culture told in the Śatapatha Brāhmana,¹ the Kosala-Videhas, as the offspring of Videgha Māthava, appear as falling later than the Kuru-Pañcālas under the influence of Brahminism. The same passage gives the Sadānīrā as the boundary of the two peoples—Kosala and Videha. Elsewhere² the Kausalya, or Kosala king, Para Āṭṇāra Hairaṇyanābha, is described as having performed the great Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice. Connexion with Kāśi and Videha appears also from a passage of the Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra.³ Weber⁴ points out that Āśvalāyana, who was very probably a descendant of Aśvala, the Hotr priest of Videha, is called a Kosala in the Praśna Upaniṣad.⁵ The later distinction of North and South Kosala is unknown to both Vedic and Buddhist literature.⁵

Kosala lay to the north-east of the Ganges, and corresponded roughly to the modern Oudh.

Kaukūsta is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ as a giver of a Dakṣiṇā, or gift to the priests officiating at a sacrifice. The Kāṇva recension reads the name Kaükthasta.²

¹ i. 4, 1, 1 et seq.

² Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xiii. 5, 4, 4. Gf. Hiranya-nābha, a Rājaputra, in Praśna Upaniṣad, iii. 2, and Śāṅkhā-yana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 9, 13, as a Kausalya, while ibid., 11, Para is styled Vaideha.

³ xvi. 29, 5.

⁴ Indische Studien, 1, 182, 441.

⁵ vi. I.

⁶ Oldenberg, Buddha, 393, n.

Cf. von Schroeder, Indians Literatur und Cultur, 167; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, xlii; Weber, Indian Literature, 39, 132 et seq.; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 213-215; Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, 25.

¹ iv. 6, 1, 13.

2 Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 26, 426, n. 1.

Cf. Weber, Indian Literature, 134.

Kauneya. See Rajana.

Kauntha-ravya is mentioned as a teacher in the Aitareya¹ and Śānkhāyana Āranyakas.2

> 1 iii, 2, 2. 2 vii. 14; viii. 2. Cf. Keith, Aitareya Āranyaka, 249.

Kaundinī. See Pārāśarīkaundinīputra.

Kaundinya is mentioned as a pupil of Śāndilya in the first two Vamsas (lists of teachers) in the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad.1 See also Vidarbhīkaundinya, and the following.

1 ii. 5, 20; iv. 5, 26 (Mādhyamdina = ii. 6, 1; iv. 6, 1, Kānva).

Kaundinyāyana is mentioned in the first Vamsa (list of teachers) of the Mādhyamdina recension of the Brhadāranyaka Upanisad1 as a pupil of Kaundinya, pupil of Kaundinya and Agnivesya; in the second 2 as a pupil of the two Kaundinyas, pupils of Aurnavābha, pupil of Kaundinya, pupil of Kaundinya, pupil of Kaundinya and Agnivesya. Neither Vamsa is of much value.3

3 Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 1 ii. 5, 20. 2 iv. 5. 26. 12. XXXIV.

Kautasta, a word occurring once in the dual, is apparently a patronymic of Arimejaya and Janamejaya, two Adhvaryu priests at the snake sacrifice described in the Pañcavimśa Brāhmana.1

1 xxv. 15, 3. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 35.

Kautsa ('descendant of Kutsa') is mentioned in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ as a pupil of Māhitthi. A Kautsa is also attacked in the Nirukta2 as denying the value of the Vedas, and there is a strong ritual tradition of hostility to the Kautsas.3

¹ x. 6, 5, 9; Brhadaranyaka Upani- | x. 20, 12; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythşad, vi. 5, 4 (Kāṇva recension only). ² i. 15.

³ E.g., Āpastamba Śrauta Sūtra.

ologie, 3, 285. Cf. Weber, Indian Literature, 77, 140.

Kautsī-putra ('son of a female descendant of Kutsa') is mentioned as a pupil of Baudhīputra in the last Vaṃśa (list of teachers) of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad in the Mādhyaṃdina recension (vi. 4, 31).

Kaupayeya is the patronymic of Uccaiḥśravas.

Kaumbhya ('descendant of Kumbhya') is the patronymic of Babhru.

Kaurama. See Kaurava.

Kaurayāṇa is apparently a patronymic of Pākasthāman in the Rigveda.¹ Hopkins² suggests that Kaurāyaṇa may be meant.

¹ viii. 3, 21. Cf. Nirukta, v. 25.

Kaurava is the reading of the text of the Khilas¹ and of some manuscripts of the Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra² for the Kaurama of the Atharvaveda,³ who appears in a Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts') as a generous donor among the Ruśamas.

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1 v. 8, 1 (Scheftelowitz, Die Apo-
kryphen des Rgveda, 155).
2 xii, 14, 1.
3 xx. 127, 1.
Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Athar-
vaveda, 689.
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Kauravya ('belonging to the Kurus'). A man of the Kuru people, is described in the Atharvaveda as enjoying prosperity with his wife under the rule of King Parikṣit.¹ Mention is also made of the Kauravya king Balhika Prātipīya in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,² and in the later legend Ārṣṭiṣeṇa and Devāpi are alleged to have been Kauravyas.³

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1 xx. 127, 8; Khila, v. 10, 2; Śāṅkh-
āyana Śrauta Sūtra, xii. 17, 2. Cf. a
Mantra in the Vaitāna Sūtra, xxxiv. 9.
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Kauravyāyaṇī-putra ('son of a female descendant of Kuru') is mentioned as a teacher in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (v. I, I).

² Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 90, n. 2.

xii. 9, 3, 3.
 Nirukta, ii. 10.

Kauru-pañcāla, 'belonging to the Kuru-Pañcālas,' is an epithet of Āruņi in the Śatapatha Brāhmana (xi. 4, 1, 2), and a practice of those tribes is designated by this word in the same work (i. 7, 2, 8).

Kaulakāvatī are two persons mentioned in the Maitrāyanī Samhitā (ii. 1, 3) as having given advice, in the capacity of priests, to Rathaprota Dārbhya.

Kaulāla is a word denoting a hereditary potter ('son of a kulāla or potter') according to the commentator Mahīdhara on the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā.¹ The other Saṃhitās² have Kulāla.

1 xxx. 7.
 2 Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, ii. 9, 5;
 Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xvii. 13, and cf.
 Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xvii. 27.

Kaulitara is mentioned in the Rigveda¹ as a Dāsa. Apparently the name is an epithet of Śambara, meaning 'son of Kulitara': this points to Śambara having been a terrestrial foe, and not a mere demon.²

¹ iv. 30, 14. | 3, 273; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, ² Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, | pp. 64, 161.

Kaulīka, like Kulīkā, is the name of some sort of bird in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Yajurveda.¹

¹ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 24; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 14, 5.

Kauśambeya is the patronymic ('descendant of Kuśamba') of a teacher Proti in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary: a view supported by the fact that Kūśāmba actually occurs as the name of a man in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.² It is, however, possible that the word means a 'native of the town Kauśambī' as understood by Harisvāmin in his commentary on the Śatapatha Brāhmana.³

¹ xii. 2, 2, 13; Gopatha Brāhmaṇa, i. ², 24.

² viii. 6, 8. The name is also found later (in the Epic) in the form of Kuśāmba.

³ Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 153, n. 5. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 193; Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, 3, 36; Oldenberg, Buddha, 397.

Kauśika is an epithet of Indra as 'connected with the Kuśikas,' and also of Viśvāmitra as 'son of Kuśika.' A teacher named Kauśika is mentioned as a pupil of Kauṇḍinya in the first two Vaṃśas (lists of teachers) of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.²

¹ In a late Khila, Schestelowitz, Die | ² ii. 6, 1; iv. 6, 1 (Kāṇva recension). Apokryphen des Rgveda, 104.

Kauśikāyani ('descendant of Kauśika') is mentioned as a teacher and a pupil of Ghṛtakauśika in the first two Vaṃśas (lists of teachers) of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.¹

¹ ii. 5, 21; iv. 5, 27 (Mādhyaṃdina = ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3, Kāṇva).

Kauśikī-putra ('son of a female descendant of Kuśika') is mentioned in a Vaṃśa (list of teachers) in the Kāṇva recension of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (vi. 5, 1) as a pupil of Ālambīputra and Vaiyāghrapadīputra.

Kauśreya ('descendant of Kuśri') is the patronymic of Somadakṣa in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā (xx. 8; xxi. 9).

Kauṣārava ('descendant of Kuṣāru') is the patronymic of Maitreya in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (viii. 28).

Kauṣītaki ('descendant of Kuṣītaka') is the patronymic of a teacher, or series of teachers, to whom the doctrines set forth in the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa¹ and in the Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka,² and the Śrauta and Gṛhya Sūtras,³ are referred. He is rarely mentioned elsewhere.⁴ The doctrine of Kauṣītaki is called the Kauṣītaka.⁵ The pupils of Kauṣītaki are known as the Kauṣītakis in the Nidāna Sūtra,⁶ and in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa 7

¹ ii. 9; vii. 4. 10; viii. 8; xi. 5. 7; xiv. 3. 4; xv. 2; xvi. 9; xviii. 5; xxii. 1. 2; xxiii. 1. 4; xxiv. 8. 9; xvv. 8. 10. 14. 15, etc.

² ii. 17; xv. 1; Kausstaki Upanisad, ii. 1. 7.

³ Śāńkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iv. 15, 11; vii. 21, 6; ix. 20, 33; xi. 11, 3. 6, etc.

⁴ Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 4, 3, ¹; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, i. 5, 2.

⁵ Kauṣītaki Brāhmaņa, iii. 1; xix. 3; Sāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iv. 2, 13; xi. 14, 26; Anupada Sūtra, ii. 7; vii. 11; viii. 5, etc.

⁶ vi. 12.

⁷ xvii. 4, 3.

they with Kuṣītaka are stated to have been cursed by Luśākapi. Elsewhere⁸ they are called Kauṣītakins. If the Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka⁹ can be trusted, there were among them at least two leading teachers, Kahoḍa and Sarvajit, the former of whom is mentioned elsewhere.¹⁰

8 Āpastamba Śrauta Sūtra, x. 1, 10; Āsvalāyana Grhya Sūtra, i. 23.

⁹ Cf. Keith, Śāitkhāyana Āraņyaka, 14, 24, 71.

10 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 4, 3, 1;

Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iii. 4, 1; Āśvalāyana Gṛhya Sūtra, iii. 4.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 259; 2, 289 ct seq.; Indian Literature, 44 et seq.; Lindner, Kauşītaki Brāhmana, ix.

Kauṣya, 'descendant of Koṣa,' is the patronymic of Suśravas.

Kausalya, 'prince of Kosala,' is the designation of Para Āṭṇāra in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,¹ and of Hiraṇyanābha in the Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra.² Āśvalāyana is styled Kausalya, as 'belonging to the Kosala country,' in the Praśna Upaniṣad,³ and the Kāśi-Kausalyāḥ, or the 'Kāśis and people of Kosala,' are mentioned in the Gopatha Brāhmaṇa.⁴

¹ xiii. 5, 4, 4. ² xvi. 9, 13. Cf. xvi. 29, 5. ³ i. 1. ⁴ i. 2, 9 (spelt Kauśalyāḥ).

Kausita appears in the Maitrāyanī Samhitā (ii. 1, 11) in connexion with the demon Kusitāyin as the name of a lake. The Kāthaka Samhitā (x. 5) has Kausida instead.

Kausurubindi, 'descendant of Kusurubinda,' is the patronymic of Proti Kauśāmbeya in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (xii. 2, 2, 13). In the Gopatha Brāhmaṇa (i. 4, 24) the form is Kausuravindu.

Kauhada, 'descendant of Kohada,' is the patronymic of a teacher, Mitravinda, mentioned in the Vamsa Brāhmana, as well as of Śravanadatta.

Weber, Indische Studien, 4, 372, 382 et seq. A school of Kauhadīyas is known in the Gobhila Grhya Sūtra, iii. 4, 34.

Kratu-jit Jānaki ('descendant of Janaka') is mentioned in the Yajurveda¹ as the priest of Rajana Kauneya. See also Kratuvid.

¹ Taittiriya Samhitā, ii. 3, 8, 1; Kāthaka Samhitā, xi. 1. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 3, 474.

Kratu-vid Jānaki ('descendant of Janaka') is mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (vii. 34) as having learned a certain doctrine regarding Soma from Agni.

Kraya, 'sale,' is a word which does not actually occur in the Rigveda, though the verb $kr\bar{\imath}$, from which this noun is derived, is found there.¹ Both noun and verb are common in the later Samhitās.² Sale appears to have regularly consisted in barter in the Rigveda:³ ten cows are regarded as a possible price for an (image of) Indra to be used as a fetish, while elsewhere not a hundred, nor a thousand, nor a myriad are considered as an adequate price (śulka) for the purchase of Indra.⁴ The Atharvaveda⁵ mentions, as possible objects of commerce, garments (dūrśa), coverlets (pavasta), and goatskins (ajina). The haggling of the market was already familiar in the days of the Rigveda,6 and a characteristic hymn of the Atharvaveda is directed to procuring success in trade. The 'price' was called Vasna, and the 'merchant' Vanij, his greed being well known.8

There is little evidence of a standard of value in currency having been adopted. When no specific mention is made of the standard, the unit was probably the cow.⁹ In a considerable number of passages of the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa 10 and elsewhere, 11 however, the expression hiranyaṃ śata-mānam suggests that there must have been some standard other than

¹ iv. 24, 10.

² Kraya: Taittirīya Samhitā, iii. 1, 2, 1; vi. 1, 3, 3; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, viii. 55; xix. 13; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 3, 2, 10, etc.; krī: Av. iii. 15, 2; Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 1, 10, 3; vii. 1, 6, 2, etc.; apa-krī: Av. viii. 7, 11; pari-krī: Av. iv. 7, 6, etc.; vi-krī: Vājasaneyi Samhitā, iii. 49, etc.

³ iv. 24, 10.

⁴ Rv. viii. 1, 5.

⁵ iv. 7, 6.

⁶ iv. 24, 9. See Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 419, 420, correcting Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 91, and Geldner's Kommentar on iv. 24.

⁷ iii. 15. See Bloomfield, Hymns of

the Atharvaveda, 352; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, III, II2.

⁸ Rv. i. 33, 3, and see Pani.

⁹ Cf. Harisvāmin on Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 2, 1, where he renders sahasrārha as equal to 'worth a thousand cows,' in which Eggeling follows him; Saṃkṣiptasāra on Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xxii. 10, 33.

¹⁰ xii. 7, 2, 13; 9, 1, 4; xiii. 1, 1, 4; 2, 3, 2; 4, 1, 13; xiv. 3, 1, 32. *Cf.* v. 5, 5, 16; xiii. 4, 1, 6.

¹¹ Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa, xviii. 3, ², where a long series of compounds of numerals with -māna occurs; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, viii. 5; xiv. 8; xxii. 8.

cows, though it might in all these passages be rendered as 'gold worth a hundred cows.' But the use of the Kṛṣṇala as a measure of weight 12 suggests that the meaning is 'gold weighing a hundred Kṛṣṇalas,' and this seems the more probable explanation. This unit seems not to be known in the Rigveda, where the meaning of the term Manā, which occurs once, is mysterious, and where necklets (Niṣka) seem to have been one of the more portable forms of wealth, like jewellery in modern India, and may perhaps have served as a means of exchange.

12 Cf. Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xi. 4; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 6, 7; Anupada Sūtra, ix. 6; Weber, *Indische Streifen*, 1, 99-103.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 255-260. Barter had for the most part

passed away by the time of the Jātakas, an illustration of the modern character of the society they represent. See Mrs. Rhys Davids, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1901, 874 et seq.

Kravana, a word occurring only once in the Rigveda,¹ is understood by Ludwig² as the name of the Hotr priest or the sacrificer. Roth considered it an adjective without at first³ assigning a sense, but afterwards⁴ as meaning 'timid.' Sāyaṇa interprets it as 'worshipping.' Oldenberg⁵ considers the meaning uncertain, suggesting as possible 'the slayer of the victim.'

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1 v. 44, 9.
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Kravya, 'raw flesh,' is never mentioned in Vedic literature as eaten by men. Demons alone are spoken of as consuming it,¹ apart from Agni being called kravyād, 'eating raw flesh,' as consumer of the bodies of the dead.² The man who in the Rigveda is compelled by starvation to eat dog's flesh, nevertheless cooks it.³

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<sup>1</sup> Rv. vii. 104, 2; x. 87, 2. 19; 162, 2; Av. iii. 28, 2; iv. 36, 3; v. 29 10, etc.

<sup>2</sup> Rv. x. 16, 9. 10. See Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, pp. 97, 165.
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Krātu-jāteya is a patronymic of Rāma Krātujāteya Vaiyā-ghrapadya in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 40, 2; iv. 16, 1).

Krimi. See Krmi.

² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 138.

³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

⁴ Böhtlingk's Dictionary, s.v.

⁵ Rgveda-Noten, 1, 342.

Krivi is asserted in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ to have been the older name of the Pañcālas. This statement is supported by the name of the king there mentioned, Kraivya Pāñcāla. The Krivis appear in the Rigveda² as settled on the Sindhu and the Asiknī. It is a plausible conjecture of Zimmer's³ that with the Kurus they made up the Vaikarṇa people.⁴ The importance of the Pañcālas, and the insignificance of the Krivis, may be explained in part by the fact that the later Kuru-Pañcāla alliance included the Bharatas. It is also probable, as Oldenberg⁵ suggests, from the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,⁶ that the Turvaśas were included in the Pañcālas, and as the latter name indicates; probably other tribes also. Or, if Hopkins' view¹ is accepted that Turvaśa was king of the Yadus, the latter may in part have been allied with the Krivis to form the Pañcālas.

⁷ Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 258 et seq. This view is hardly convincing, while the disappearance of the Turvaśas is easily to be accounted for by their being merged, along with the Krivis, in the Pañcālas. The name of Krivi is lost in the Epic as completely as that of Turvaśa (Pargiter, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1910, 48, notes 4, 5).

Cf. Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 155, 157; Grierson, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1908, 602-607; Keith, ibid., 831 et seq.; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 152, 153; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, xli.; Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 407.

Krīta V 'ta-hotra ('descendant of Vītahotra') is mentioned in the Ma ayanī Samhitā (iv. 2, 6) in connexion with the Kurus.

1. Kruñc,¹ Kruñca,² Krauñca,³ are variant forms denoting the 'curlew' or 'snipe.' To it is attributed in the Yajurveda¹

¹ xiii. 5, 4, 7.

² viii. 20, 24; 22, 12. Elsewhere Krivi is doubtful in sense. In several passages (i. 30, 1; viii. 87, 1; ix. 9, 6, and perhaps i. 166, 6, where krivir-datī is an epithet of lightning) Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, i. 166, 341, understands the word to mean 'horse.' Elsewhere (ii. 17, 6; 22, 2; viii. 51, 8) he takes it to be a proper name, while in v. 44, 4, he is doubtful. In the passages last cited this view may very well be correct.

³ Altindisches Leben, 103.

⁴ Cf. Kavaşa.

⁵ Buddha, 404.

⁶ xiii. 5, 4, 16.

¹ Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 11, 6; Kāṣhaka Samhitā, xxxviii. 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 73 et seq.; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, ii, 6, 2, 1-3.

² Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 22. 3¹ (in xxv. 6 the sense is quite uncertain); Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 3.

³ Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 12, 1.

the faculty, later assigned to the Hamsa, of extracting milk from water when the two fluids are mixed.4

- ⁴ Lanman, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 19, 151-158; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 150.

 Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 91, 92.
- 2. Krune Āngirasa is in the Pancavimsa Brāhmaṇa¹ the name of the seer of a Sāman or Chant called the Kraunca. It is doubtless invented to explain the name of the Chant on the ordinary principle that Sāmans are called after their authors, though this rule has many exceptions.²

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1 xiii. 9, 11; 11, 20.
2 Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences,
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Krumu is the name of a stream mentioned twice in the Rigveda—once in the fifth book¹ and once in the last, in the Nadī-stuti, or 'praise of rivers.'² There can be little doubt that this river is identical with the modern Kurum, a western tributary of the Indus.³

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    V. 53, 9.
    Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 14; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3,
    Roth, Nirukta, Erläuterungen, 43;
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Krumuka as the name of 'wood' appears to be a variant form of Krmuka.

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 1, 9, 3; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 4, 7, 3.

Kraivya. Pāncāļa, the king of the Krivis, is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa² as having performed the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, on the Parivakrā. Eggeling, however, takes the word as a proper name, 'Kraivya, the Pāncāla king.'

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1 So the St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Weber, Indian Literature, 125, n.; Oldenberg, Buddha, 409, n.

2 xiii. 5, 4, 7.
3 Sacred Books of the East, 44, 397 (but ef. p. 398, top).
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Krośa, as a measure of distance (lit. 'a shout,' as expressing the range of the voice), is found in the Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa.

1 xvi. 13, 12. Cf. Weber, Indische miles. The word still survives in the studien, 8, 432 et seq. In the later literature it is equivalent to about two popular measure of distance in India.

Kroṣṭṛ (lit. 'howler'), the 'jackal,' is mentioned in the Rigveda¹ as by nature cowardly compared with the wild boar (Varāha). In the Atharvaveda² it is spoken of as devouring corpses. The word also occurs in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā,³ where the commentator glosses it with Sṛgāla, another name of the jackal. See also Lopāśa.

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<sup>1</sup> x. 28, 1.
<sup>2</sup> xi. 2, 2.
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3 xxiv. 32. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 84.

1. Krauňca. See Kruňc.

- 2. Kraunca, as the name of a mountain, occurs only in the latest Vedic literature.1
- ¹ Taittiriya Āraņyaka, i. 31, 2. See Weber, Indian Literature, 93; Indische Studien, 1, 78.

Krauncikī-putra, 'son of a female descendant of Kraunca,' is mentioned as a pupil of Vaiṭṭabhatīputra¹ in the last Vaṃśa (list of teachers) in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.²

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<sup>1</sup> Vaidabhṛtī-putra in the Mādhyam-dina recension, vi. 4, 32.
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² vi. 5, 2 (Kāṇva).

Kraustuki, 'descendant of Krostuka,' is mentioned as a grammarian in the Nirukta, the Brhaddevatā, and the Chandas, but as an astrologer in a Parisista of the Atharvaveda.

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1 viii. 2.
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Cf. Weber, Jyotişa, 12; Indian Literature, 61.

Kvayi is the name of some species of bird in the Yajurveda, occurring in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice. The form in the Maitrāyanī Samhitā is Kuvaya.

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<sup>1</sup> Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 17, 1; | <sup>2</sup> iii. 14, 18. Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 29. | <sup>2</sup> Cf. Zimmer, Altındisches Leben, 99
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² iv. 137. Cf. Indische Studien, 1, 105.

^{3 5.}

⁴ Weber, Berlin Catalogue of Sanskrit MSS., I, 94. See Bolling and von Negelein, The Parisistas of the

Atharvaveda, 2, 438 et seq., where in Parisista lxviii (Svapnādhyāyah), i. 2; ii. 8, the name appears as Krostuki.

Kvala is a substance, perhaps¹ identical with Kuvala, the fruit of the jujube, used to coagulate milk according to the Taittirīya Saṃhitā.²

¹ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
² ii. 5, 3, 5. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 227.

Kṣata is regarded by Zimmer¹ as denoting a special disease (a sort of *Phthisis pulmonalis*) in the Atharvaveda,² but the word is probably only an adjective.³

- 1 Altindisches Leben, 377.
- ² vii. 76, 4 (where the reading is doubtful, the text having aksita. See Aksata).

³ Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 509; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 442.

Kṣattṛ is a word of frequent occurrence in the later Saṃhitās and Brāhmaṇas, denoting a member of the royal entourage, but the sense is somewhat uncertain. In the Rigveda¹ it is used of a god as the 'distributor' of good things to his worshippers; the same sense seems to be found in the Atharvaveda² and elsewhere.³ In one passage of the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā⁴ the interpretation 'doorkeeper' is given by the commentator Mahīdhara, a sense which seems possible in other passages,⁵ while Sāyana ascribes to it in one passage of the Satapatha Brāhmana⁶ the more dignified meaning of antahpurādhyakṣa, 'a chamberlain.' In other passages,⁵ again, the sense of 'charioteer' is not unlikely. Later the Kṣattṛ was regarded as a man of mixed caste.8

1 vi. 13, 2.

² iii. 24, 7; v. 17, 4.

³ Śatapatha Brāhmana, xiii. 5, 4, 6; Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 9, 16.

4 xxx. 13. Cf. Taittirīya Brāhmaņa,

i. 7, 3, 5.

- ⁸ Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 5, 4, 2; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 9, 4; Kāṭnaka Samhitā, xvii. 13; Chāndogya Upanişad, iv. 1, 5; Pancavimsa Brāhmana, xix. 1, 4.
- 6 v. 3, 1, 7. Cf. on xiii. 4, 2, 5 (āyavyayādhyakṣa), and Harisvāmin on xiii. 5, 4, 6 (kośādhyakṣa). The scholiast on the Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 3, 9,

has mantrī dūto vā; on xx. 1, 16, pratīhāro dūto vā. Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 41, 61, etc., renders it chamberlain.

- 7 Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvi. 26; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 7, 1, with the scholiast's note, and ibid., anuksattr. rendered as sārather anucara, 'the attendant of the charioteer'; Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 1, 20, with the scholiast's note.
- 8 Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 12, 481. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 2, 36; 17. 290: St. Fetersburg Dictionary, 5, v.

I. Kṣatra, in the general sense of 'dominion,' 'rule,' 'power,' as exercised by gods and men, occurs frequently from the Rigveda 1 onwards. The word is also found in the concrete sense of 'rulers' in the Rigveda 2 and later; but in no case does it in the Rigveda certainly 4 mean what it regularly denotes in the later Samhitās,5 the ruling class as opposed to the priests (Brahman), the subject people (Viś, Vaiśya), and the servile class (Śūdra). See also Kṣatriya. A Kṣatra-pati is several times mentioned 6 as an equivalent of 'king.'

¹ i. 24, II; 136, I. 3; iv. 17. I; v. 62, 6, etc.; Av. iii. 5, 2; v. 18, 4, etc. So ksatra-śri, Rv. i. 25, 5; vi. 26. 8; kṣatra-bhṛt, 'bringers of lordship.' Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 4, 7, 2; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 4, 6, 12; 7, 6, 3; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxvii. 7, etc.

² Singular: i. 157, 2; viii. 35, 17.

3 Plural: Av. iv. 22, 2; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, x. 17; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 7, 6, 3.

4 See Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., and Varņa.

⁵ Av. ii. 15, 4; ix. 7, 9; xii. 5, 8; xv. 10, 5, etc.; Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 6, 1, 2; ii. 2, 11, 2, etc.; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, v. 27 : xiv. 24 ; xviii. 38, etc. See other citations under Varna.

6 Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 8, 14, 2; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, x. 17; Taittirīya Brāhmana, i. 7, 8, 5; Satapatha Brāhmana, v. 4, 2, 2.

2. Kṣatra seems to be the name of a man mentioned with others, including Manasa, Yajata, and Avatsāra, in one quite obscure passage of the Rigveda.1

1 v. 44, 10. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 138.

Kṣatra-vidyā, 'the science of the ruling class,' is mentioned in the Chandogya Upanisad.1 Sankara glosses the term with dhanur-veda, 'the science of the bow,' which is the most probable sense.2

1 vii. I, 2. 4; 2, I; 7, I.

² Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 104.

Ksatriya.—As the origin of caste, the relation of the castes, intermarriage, and cognate matters may most conveniently be discussed under Varna, this article will be confined to determining, as far as possible, the real character of the class called Ksatriyas, or collectively Ksatra.

The evidence of the Jatakas1 points to the word Khattiya

¹ See Fick, Die sociale Gliederung im | Buddha, 1, 95 et seq.; Buddhist India, nordöstlichen Indien zu Buddhas Zeit, 59 et seq.; Rhys Davids, Dialogues of the

52 et seq.

denoting the members of the old Āryan nobility who had led the tribes to conquest, as well as those families of the aborigines who had managed to maintain their princely status in spite of the conquest. In the epic² also the term Kṣatriya seems to include these persons, but it has probably a wider signification than Khattiya, and would cover all the royal military vassals and feudal chiefs, expressing, in fact, pretty much the same as the barones of early English history. Neither in the Jātakas³ nor in the epic⁴ is the term co-extensive with all warriors; the army contains many besides the Kṣatriyas, who are the leaders or officers, rather than the rank and file.

In the later Samhitās⁵ and the Brāhmaṇas⁶ the Kṣatriya stands as a definite member of the social body, distinct from the priest, the subject people, and the slaves, Brāhmaṇa. Vaiśya, and Śūdra. It is significant that Rājanya is a variant to Kṣatriya, and an earlier one. Hence it is reasonable to suppose that the Kṣatriya and Rājanya are both of similar origin, being princely or connected with royalty. Moreover, the early use of Kṣatriya in the Rigveda⁷ is exclusively connected with royal authority or divine authority.

It is impossible to say exactly what persons would be included in the term Kṣatriya. That it covered the royal house and the various branches of the royal family may be regarded as certain. It, no doubt, also included the nobles and their families: this would explain the occasional opposition of Rājanya and Kṣatriya, as in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,8 where a Rājanya asks a Kṣatriya for a place for sacrifice (deva-yajana). Thus, when strictly applied, Kṣatriya would have a wider denotation than Rājanya. As a rule, however, the two expressions are identical, and both are used as evidence in what follows. That Kṣatriya ever included the mere fighting

² Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 73 et seq.

³ Fick, op. cit., 52, n. 2.

Hopkins, op. cit., 184 et seq., 190.

⁵ Av. vi. 76, 3. 4; xii. 5, 5. 44. 46, etc.; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 5, etc. See Varna and Rājanya.

Aitareya Brāhmana, vii. 24, etc.;

Satapatha Brāhmaņa, i. 3, 2, 15; iv. 1, 4, 5, 6, etc. See Varņa.

⁷ iv. 12, 3; 42, 1; v. 69, 1; vii. 64, 2; viii. 25, 8; 56, 1; x. 109, 3. Cf. Vājasaneyi Samhitā, iv. 19; x. 4; Taittīrīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 4, 7, 7.

s vii. 20. Cf. Pañcaviņiša Brāhmaņa, xxiv. 18, 2; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xx. 1.

man has not been proved: in the Rigveda⁹ and later¹⁰ others than Kṣatriyas regularly fought; but possibly if the nobles had retinues as the kings had, Kṣatriya would embrace those retainers who had military functions. The term did not apply to all members of the royal entourage; for example, the Grāmaṇī was usually a Vaiśya.

The connexion of the Kṣatriyas with the Brahmins was very close. The prosperity of the two is repeatedly asserted to be indissolubly associated, especially in the relation of king (Rājan) and domestic priest (Purohita). Sometimes there was feud between Kṣatriya and Brahmin. His management of the sacrifice then gave the Brahmin power to ruin-the Kṣatriya by embroiling him with the people 13 or with other Kṣatriyas. 14

Towards the common people, on the other hand, the Kṣatriya stood in a relation of well-nigh unquestioned superiority. There are, however, references to occasional feuds between

⁹ In the following passages there is reference to the people (vis) fighting: i. 69, 3; 126, 5 (cf., however, Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 121); iv. 24, 4; vi. 26, 1; vii. 79, 2; viii. 18, 18; 96, 15; probably also vii. 33, 6, where the Trtsūnām višah means 'the subjects of the Trtsu princes,' as Geldner, Vedische Studien, 2, 136, thinks. In vi. 41, 5, on the other hand, the people and wars (prtanāsu) are contrasted, the normal rule of the common folk being peace.

10 In Av. ix. 7, 9, the people are clearly designated as balam, or 'force,' a regular term later for an armed force. The later law books (e.g., Gautama, vii. 6; Vasistha, ii. 22) allow even Brahmins to maintain themselves by the occupation of Ksatriyas in case of need. For the Epic, cf. Hopkins, op. cit., 94, 95; 184 et seq.

11 Taittiriya Samhitā, v. 1, 10, 3; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 2, 3; iii. 1, 9; 2, 3; iv. 3, 9; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xxix. 10; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, v. 27; vii. 21; xviii. 14; xix. 5; xxxviii. 14, etc.; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xi. 11, 9; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 22; Śatapatha

Brāhmaņa, i. 2, 1, 7; iii. 5, 2, 11: 6, 1, 17; vi. 6, 3, 14. The superiority of the Rājanya to all other castes is asserted in Taittiriya Samhită, ii. 5, 10, 1, etc. The superiority of the Brahmin to the Ksatriya is sometimes asserted -e.g., in the Atharvaveda hymns, v. 18. 19; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iv. 3, 8; Vājasanevi Samhitā, xxi. 21; Satapatha Brāhmana, xiii. 1, 9, 1; 3, 7, 8. So the Rājasūya sacrifice of the king is inferior to the highest sacrifice (the Vājapeya) of the priest (ibid., v. I, I, 12), and though the Brahmin goes after the king, he is yet stronger than he (v. 4, 2, 7, and v. 4, 4, 15). Cf. Hopkins, op. cit., 76.

12 Kāthaka Samhitā, xxviii. 5; Av.

v. 18. 19.

¹³ E.g., Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 2, 11,
2; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, i. 6, 5; ii. 1, 9;
iii. 3, 10; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xxix. 8, etc.

14 Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 3, 10. etc. 15 Kāthaka Samhitā, xvi. 4; xxi. 10; xxii. 9; xxix. 9. 10; Aitareya Brāhmana, ii. 33; Satapatha Brāhmana, xi. 2, 7, 15. 16, etc.; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iv. 4, 9. 10; 6, 8, etc.

the people and the nobles, 16 in which no doubt the inferior numbers of the latter were compensated by their superior arms and prowess. In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa 17 the Vaiśya is described as tributary to another (anyasya bali-krt), to be devoured by another (anyasyādya), and to be oppressed at will (yathākāma-jyeya). Probably these epithets apply most strictly to the relation of the king and his people, but the passage shows that the people were greatly at the mercy of the nobles. No doubt the king granted to them the right, which may have been hereditary, to be supported by the common people, whose feudal superiors they thus became. In return for these privileges the Kṣatriyas had probably duties of protection to perform, as well as some judicial functions, to judge from an obscure passage of the Kāthaka Saṃhitā. 18

The main duty of the Kṣatriya in the small states of the Vedic period was readiness for war. The bow is thus his special attribute, of just as the goad is that of the agriculturist; for the bow is the main weapon of the Veda. Whether the Kṣatriyas paid much attention to mental occupations is uncertain. In the latest stratum of the Brāhmaṇa literature there are references to learned princes like Janaka of Videha, who is said to have become a Brahmin (brahmā), apparently in the sense that he had the full knowledge which a Brahmin possessed. Other learned Kṣatriyas of this period were

¹⁶ Cf. note 13; Taittirīya Samhitā,
v. 4, 6, 7; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iv. 6, 7.
¹⁷ vii. 29. Cf. Rājan.

18 xxvii. 4 (tasmād rājanyenādhyaksena vaišyam ghnanti, 'so with a Rājanya as a supervisor [?] they smite a Vaišya'). It is not clear whether han here means 'kill' or 'beat.'

19 See Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 30, n. 2.

²⁰ Av. xviii. 2, 60; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xviii. 9; xxxvii. 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 3, 5, 30; Taittirīya Āraṇyaka, vi. 1, 3. In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 19, the list is longer—chariot, breastplate (Kavaca), bow and arrow (iṣu-dhanvan)—and in the prayer for the

prosperity of the Kṣatriya (called, as usual in the older texts, Rājanya), at the Aśvamedha, the Rājanya is to be an archer and a good chariot-fighter; Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 5, 18, 1; Maitrāyaṇī Samhitā, iii. 12, 6; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, Aśvamedha, v. 14; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxii. 2. So Indra is the god of the Kṣatriyas, Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, ii. 3, 1; iv. 5, 8, etc.

21 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 6, 2, 1. Cf. Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad, iv. 1. See Max Müller, Ancient Sanskrit Literature, 421 et seq.; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 1², 426 et seq. Similarly at the Dīkṣā a Kṣatriya becomes temporarily a Brahmin, Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 23. Cf. Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 1, 3.

Pravāhaņa Jaivali,22 Aśvapati Kaikeya,23 and Ajātaśatru.24 Garbe, 25 Grierson, 26 and others believe they are justified in holding the view that the Kṣatriyas developed a special philosophy of their own as opposed to Brahminism, which appears later as Bhakti, or Faith. On the other hand, there is clear evidence 27 that the opinion of Kṣatriyas on such topics were held in little respect, and it must be remembered that to attribute wisdom to a king was a delicate and effective piece of flattery. There are earlier references to royal sages (rajanyarşi),28 but it is very doubtful if much stress can be laid on them, and none can be laid on the later tradition of Sāyaṇa.29 Again, the Nirukta³⁰ gives a tradition relating how Devāpi, a king's son, became the Purohita of his younger brother Samtanu; but it is very doubtful if the story can really be traced with Sieg31 in the Rigveda32 itself. In any case, the stories refer only to a few selected Kṣatriyas of high rank, while there is no evidence that the average Kṣatriya was concerned with intellectual pursuits. Nor is there any reference to Ksatriyas engaging in agriculture or in trade or commerce. It may be assumed that the duties of administration and war were adequate to absorb his attention. On the other hand, we do hear of a Rajanya

²² Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 1, 1; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, i. 8, 1; v. 3, 1; Muir, op. cit., 433-435: 515; Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 117; Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 1, lxxv.

23 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, x. 6, 1,

2 et seq.

- 24 Brhadāraņyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 1, 1;

Kausītaki Upanisad, iv. 1.

²⁵ Beiträgezurindischen Kulturgeschichte, 1 et seq. Cf. Deussen, Philosophy of the Upanishads, 17 et seq.; Winterniz, Geschichte der indischen Litteratur, 1, 199.

26 Article 'Bhakti' in Encyclopædia of Religion and Ethics; Journal of the Royal

Asiatic Society, 1908, 843.

²⁷ Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, viii. 1, 4, 10. Cf. Oldenberg, Buddha, 73, n. 1; Keith, Aitareya Āraṇyaka, 50, 257; Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1908, 868,

883, 1140-1142. Professor Eggeling concurs in the view that the Kṣatriya share in the religious movement was not substantially real.

²⁸ E.g., in Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa, xii. 12, 6; but see on this Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 235, n., and Varṇa.

29 Cited in Muir, op. cit., 12, 265 et

seq.

30 ii. 10.

31 Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 91 et seq. See Devāpi.

32 x. 98. The case of Viśvāmitra may also be cited; but his royal rank, which is attested by the mention of him as a Rājaputra in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 17, is at most merely a matter of descent, and is of very doubtful authenticity. See under Varṇa.

as a lute player and singer at the Asvamedha or horse sacrifice.³³

Of the training and education of a Kṣatriya we have no record; presumably, as in fact if not in theory later on, he was mainly instructed in the art of war, the science of the bow, and the rudimentary administrative functions which would devolve on him. At this early state of the development of the nobility which appears to be represented in the Rigveda, it was probably not unusual or impossible for a Vaiśya to become a Kṣatriya; at least, this assumption best explains the phrase³⁴ 'claiming falsely a Kṣatriya's rank' (kṣatriyaṃ mithuyā dhārayantam).

The king and the Ksatriyas must have stood in a particularly close relation. The former being the Ksatriya par excellence, it is to him rather than to the ordinary Ksatriya that we must refer passages like that in the Satapatha Brāhmana,35 where it is said that the Ksatriva, with the consent of the clansmen. gives a settlement to a man: clearly a parallel to the rule found among many peoples that the chief, but only with the consent of the people, can make a grant of unoccupied land. In the same Brāhmana 36 it is said that a Kṣatriya consecrates a Kṣatriya, a clear reference, as the commentator explains, to the practice of the old king consecrating the prince (kumāra) who is to succeed him; and again,37 the Kṣatriya and the Purohita are regarded as alone complete in contrast with other people, the parallel with the Purohita here suggesting that the Ksatriya par excellence is meant. On the other hand, the king is sometimes contrasted with the Rājanya.38

The Sūtra literature contains elaborate rules³⁰ for the educa-

Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 3, 5. This mention is proof of the existence of a class of Kṣatriya bards (as opposed to priestly reciters), from whose productions the Epic naturally grew up. Cf. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 258.

³⁴ vii. 104, 13. *Cf*. for a similarly false claim to be a Brahmin, x. 71, 8.

³⁵ vii. 1, 1, 8.

³³ xii. 8, 3, 19; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 254, n. 1.

³⁷ Cf. Eggeling, ibid., 41, 259.

³⁸ Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 2, 17, and see Rājanya.

³⁹ See references in Bühler, Sacred Books of the East, 14, 395, 396.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leber, 212 et seq.; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 231 et seq.; von Schroeder, Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 151 et seq.; Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 4 et seq. (where practically every passage on the subject is cited or referred to); Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 98 et seq. (for the Epic parallels).

tion and occupations of Kṣatriyas, but their contents cannot always be traced in the Brāhmaṇa literature, and their value is questionable.

Kṣa-pāvan, 'protector of the earth,' is an epithet of a king,² or denotes a king³ in the Rigveda. The word is significant, as showing the function of the king as the protector of the tribal territory.

¹ The word occurs only in the nominative singular as $k_{\uparrow}ap\bar{a}v\bar{a}n$, which would be the regular form from a stem $k_{\uparrow}ap\bar{a}vant$; but it is probably an irregularity for $k_{\uparrow}ap\bar{a}v\bar{a}$. Cf. Oldenberg, $k_{\uparrow}gveda-Noten$, 1, 72.

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<sup>2</sup> iii. 55, 17.

<sup>3</sup> i. 70, 5; vii. 10, 5; viii. 71, 2;

x. 29, 1.

Cf. kṣiti-pa, 'guardian of earth,'
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'king,' in later Sanskrit.

Kṣiti is in the Rigveda¹ a regular word for 'dwelling,' and in particular the kṣitir dhruvā, 'the secure dwelling,' is mentioned² in a context that shows it to be equivalent to the Vṛjana or Grāma regarded as a stronghold. From this sense is developed that of the peoples occupying the settlements,³ and in particular the five peoples⁴ (for whom see Pañca Janāsaḥ).

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1 i. 65, 3; iii. 13, 4; v. 37, 4, 3 Rv. iii. 38, 1; iv. 24, 4; 38, 5; v. 1, etc.
2 i. 73, 4 (cf. 2); vii. 88, 7. See 7 i. 7, 9; 176, 3; v. 35, 2; vi. 46, 7; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 142. vii. 75, 4; 79, 1.
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Kṣipta, 'a wound' (caused by shooting), or 'bruise' (caused by throwing), is mentioned in the Atharvaveda, together with a remedy for it, the Pippalī.

1 vi. 109, 1. 3. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 389.

Kṣipra-śyena, 'swift falcon,' is the name of a bird in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā (iii. 14, 11) and the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa x. 5, 2, 10).

Kṣīra, 'milk,' also called Go or Payas, played a large part in the economy of the Vedic Indians.¹ It was taken warm (pakva

The word $k\bar{s}ra$ does not occur in Rv. ii.-vii. It is found in i. 109, 3; 164, 7; viii. 2, 9; ix. 67, 32; x. 87, 16 (=Av. viii. 3, 15). See Hopkins, $\begin{bmatrix} 10, 0, 0 \\ 10, 0, 0 \end{bmatrix}$ Samhitā, iii. 4, 8, 7, etc.

as it came from the cow,² or was used with grain to make a 'mess cooked with milk' (kṣīra-pākam odanam).³ It was also used for mixing with Soma (Abhiśrī, Āśir). From it butter (Ghṛta) was made. Milk was also curdled, the Pūtīkā and Kvala plants, among others, being used for the purpose.⁴ The curdled milk (Dadhi) was undoubtedly used for food; and a kind of cheese is perhaps referred to in one passage of the Rigveda.⁵ Goat's milk (aja-kṣīra) is also mentioned.⁶

² i. 62, 9; 180, 3; iii. 30, 4.

³ Rv. viii. 77, 10; Av. xiii. 2, 20. Cf. kṣāra-śrī, 'milk-mixed,' Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iv. 4, 9, 1; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, viii. 57, etc.

⁴ Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 5, 3, 5.

⁵ vi. 48, 18.

⁶ Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiv. 1, 2, 13; see **A**ja.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 63, 226, 226, 268.

Kṣīraudana, 'rice cooked with milk,' is mentioned frequently in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa (ii. 5, 3, 4; xi. 5, 7, 5, etc.).

Kṣudra-sūktas, 'makers of short hymns,' is the name given in the Aitareya Āraṇyaka¹ to the authors of certain hymns of the Rigveda. Cf. Mahāsūkta.

¹ ii. 2, 2. Cf. Keith, Aitareya Āraṇyaka, 212, and Macdonell, Bṛhaddevatā, notes on iii. 116.

Kṣumpa is a word occurring only in one passage of the Rigveda, where it seems to mean a 'bush.' The Nirukta' identifies it with the Ahichatraka, a 'mushroom.'

¹ i. 84, 8. ² v. 16. Cf. Benfey, Sāmaveda, Glossar, 53.

Kṣura occurs three times in the Rigveda. The word appears to have the general sense of 'blade' in one passage, possibly also in another, where it is said that the hare swallowed a

1 Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 61, 69. Cf. 13, 292 (as 'knife' in the Epic).

² i. 166, 10 (pavisu ksurāķ on the fellies of the Maruts' car; possibly 'razors' may be meant, as Max Müller

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says in his note on this passage, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 235, n. 4).

3 x. 28, 9, where Sāyaṇa renders it as meaning 'having claws.' The later tradition ascribes the swallowing to a goat.

Kṣura, and where the sense 'blade' is adequate. In the third passage 4 there seems to be a reference to the sharpening of a razor on a grindstone 5 (bhurijos, the dual denoting precisely, as Pischel⁶ points out, the two sides of the apparatus, between which the stone revolved like the modern grindstone). But Muir,7 following another view of Roth,8 adopts the sense 'the edge of scissors,' which, however, hardly suits the other passage, one in the Atharvaveda,9 where a Ksura is described as moving about on the bhurijos, 10 as the tongue on the lip. The meaning 'razor' is perfectly clear in the Atharvaveda, ii where shaving by means of it is mentioned; in many other passages 12 either sense is adequate. A kṣuro bhṛjvān occurs in the Yajurveda:13 it seems to denote, as Bloomfield 14 suggests, a razor with a strop (in the shape of a small grinding apparatus). Kṣura-dhārā 15 denotes 'the edge of a razor,' like kṣurasya dhārā.16 In the Upanisads 17 a razor case (Ksura-dhāna) is mentioned. See also Śmaśru.

4 viii. 4, 16 (sam nah sisihi bhurijor iva kşuram, 'sharpen us like a razor on a grindstone or stropping apparatus'). ⁵ Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary,

6 Vedische Studien, 1, 243. 7 Sanskrit Texts, 5, 466.

St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. bhurij.

9 xx. 127, 4.

10 Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 197, translates bhurijos by 'on a strop.

11 vi. 68, 1. 3; viii. 2, 7.

12 Satapatha Brāhmana, ii. 6, 4, 5; iii. 1, 2, 7; ksura-pavi, Av. xii. 5, 20. 55; Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 1, 5, 7; 5, 5, 6; v. 6, 6, 1; Satapatha Brāh-

maņa, iii. 6, 2, 9, etc.; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, i. 10, 14; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxxvi. 8; Nirukta, v. 5.

13 Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 3, 12, 3. Cf. Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 8, 7; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xv. 4; Śatapatha Brāhmana, viii. 5, 2, 4.

14 American Journal of Philology, 17,

418.

15 Jaiminīya Upanișad Brāhmaņa, iii. 13, 9.

16 Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, iii. 3, 2.

17 Kausītaki Upanisad, iv. 20.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 266; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1, 239-243: Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 38 et seq.

Ksetra, 'field.' The use of this word in the Rigveda points clearly to the existence of separate fields1 carefully measured off,2 though in some passages the meaning is less definite,

indicating cultivated land generally.3 In the Atharvaveda 4 and later the sense of a separate field is clearly marked, though the more general use is also found.⁵ The deity Ksetrasya Pati,⁶ 'Lord of the Field,' should probably be understood as the god presiding over each field, just as Vāstos Pati presides over each dwelling.7 It is a fair conclusion from the evidence that the system of separate holdings already existed in early Vedic times.8 See also Urvarā, Khilya.

3 i. 100, 18; ix. 85, 4; 91, 6; Kşetrajesa, i. 33, 15, 'acquisition of land'; ksetrā-sā, iv. 38, I, 'gaining land'; ksetram - jaya, 'conquering cultivated land,' Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 2, 11. The wider sense of 'place' also occurs, v. 2, 3; 45, 9; vi. 47, 20, etc., and often later.

4 iv. 18, 5; v. 31, 4; x. 1, 18; xi. 1, 22; Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 2, 1, 2; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, vii. 24, 2, etc.

⁵ Av. ii. 29, 3; xiv. 2, 7; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 4, 1, 15. 16, etc.

⁶ Rv. iv. 37, 1. 2; vii. 35, 10; x. 66,

13; Av. ii. 8, 5; ksetrasya patnī, 'Mistress of the Field,' 12, 1; kşetranam patih, 'Lord of Fields,' Vājasanevi Samhitā, xvi. 18.

⁷ Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 138. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 236; Satapatha Brāhmana, vii. 1, 1, 8, where the Kşatriya, with the consent of the people, gives a settlement to a man: that is, presumably assigns to him a definite Ksetra for his own, probably measured out as recorded in Rv. i. 110, 5.

Kṣetriya is a disease which is mentioned several times in the Atharvaveda, and against which three hymns are specially directed.1 It is also mentioned in the Kāthaka Samhitā2 and the Taittirīya Brāhmana.3 The commentators on the Atharvaveda agree in taking it to be a hereditary disease. The word may mean 'organic,'4 or possibly 'produced in the field,' as a theory of its origin. What disease is really intended is quite uncertain. Weber⁵ considered that the aim of the Atharvan hymns was to drive away injury threatening the fields, but this is improbable. Bloomfield6 suggests 'scrofula' or 'syphilis.' The remedies mentioned throw no light on the symptoms.

¹ ii. 8. 10; iii. 7. Cf. ii. 14, 5; iv. 18, 7. 2 xv. I.

³ ii. 5, 6, 1-3, where the form is Kşetri, explained as a demon causing illness, merely an incorrect version of Av. iii. 10.

⁴ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

⁵ Indische Studien, 5, 145; 13, 150 et seq.: 17, 208; Naxatra, 2, 292.

⁸ Atharvaveda, 60.

Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 286 et seq.; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 48, 49; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 391, 392; Speijer, De ceremonia apud Indos qua jātakarma vocatur, 76-83; Pāṇini, v. 2, 92, with the Kāśikā Vrtti.

212 RETAINERS—GARMENT—BIRD [Ksemadhṛtvan Pauṇḍarīka

Kṣema-dhṛtvan Pauṇḍarīka ('descendant of Puṇḍarīka') is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa¹ as having sacrificed on the bank of the river Sudāman.

1 xxii. 18, 7. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 32. Later, the name is Kṣema-dhanvan, Harivaṃśa, 824, etc.

Kṣaimi, 'descendant of Kṣema,' is the patronymic of Suda-kṣiṇa in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 6, 3; 7, 1, etc.; 8, 6).

Kṣoṇī.—This word, when used in the plural, denotes, according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary and Ludwig,¹ in several passages of the Rigveda,² the free retainers of the king. Geldner³ at one time thought it referred to the wives of the king, pointing to polygamy; but later⁴ he concluded that it means certain divine wives.

- ¹ Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 247. ² i. 57. 4; 173, 7; viii. 3, 10; 13, 17; x. 95, 19. In ii. 34, 13; x. 22, 9, the sense is doubtful.
- 3 Bezzenberger, Beiträge, 11, 327.
- 4 Vedische Studien, 1, 279, 283.

Kṣauma, 'a linen garment,' is mentioned in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā (iii. 6, 7, etc.) and in the Sūtras.

Kṣviṅkā is mentioned once in the Rigveda¹ as a bird of prey. The word also occurs in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā,² where the commentary absurdly explains it as 'a red-mouthed female ape' (rakta-mukhī vānarī).

¹ x. 87, 7. ² v. 5, 15, 1. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 93.

KH.

Kha denotes in the Rigveda¹ and later² the hole in the nave of the wheel in which the axle is inserted. There was a difference, it seems, in the size of the hole in the wheel of a cart (Anas) and of a chariot (Ratha).³ See also 1. Yuga.

1 Rv. viii. 77, 3; 91, 7; x. 156, 3, where only the Kha is referred to. Cf. the adjective su-kha, 'having a good axle-hole,' 'running easily'; later, 'agreeable.'

² Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, v. 12, 1 (Mādhyamdina; v. 10, 1 Kānva).

³ Jaiminiya Upanişad Brāhmaņa, 1, 3, 6; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 2, 333-Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 247.

Khanga. See Khadga.

Khadga is the reading in the Maitrāyanī Samhitā¹ of the name of an animal which, in the text of the Vājasaneyi Samhitā,² variously appears as Khanga and Khadga. The rhinoceros seems clearly to be meant.³ In the Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra⁴ a rhinoceros hide is mentioned as the covering of a chariot.

¹ iii. 14, 21. ² xxiv. 40. 3 Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 86. 4 xiv. 33, 26 (khādga-kavaca asvaratha).

Khandika Audbhāri ('descendant of Udbhāra') is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ as a teacher of Keśin, and in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā² as having been defeated by Keśin as a sacrificer. A Khāndika appears in the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra³ as an enemy of Keśin.

¹ xi. 8, 4, 1. ² i. 4, 12, where Ṣaṇḍika is the reading of the MSS. 3 Caland, Über das rituelle Sūtra des Baudhāyana, 20.

Khadira is mentioned frequently from the Rigveda¹ onwards² as a tree with hard wood³—the Acacia catechu. The Asvattha is referred to as engrafting itself upon it in the Atharvaveda,⁴

iii. 53, 19.
 Av. iii. 6, 1; v. 5, 5; viii. 8, 3;
 x. 6, 6; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 9, 3,
 etc. So khādira, 'made of Khadira-wood,' Taittirīya Samhitā, iii. 5, 7, 1;

Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 3, 20; iii. 6, 2, 12, etc.

³ Av. x. 6, 6. ⁴ iii. 6, 1. *Cf.* viii. 8, 3. and from it the climbing plant Arundhatī is said to have sprung.⁵ The sruva or sacrificial ladle is spoken of as having been made from it,⁶ no doubt because of its hardness. It is in the same passage also said to have sprung from the sap (rasa) of the Gāyatrī. There is no clear reference to Catechu having been prepared from its core,⁷ as it was later. The core (sāra) was used for making amulets.⁸

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<sup>5</sup> Av. v. 5, 5.
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Kha-dyota ('sky-illuminator'), 'the firefly,' is mentioned in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (vi. 7, 3. 5).

Khanitra, a 'shovel' or 'spade' for digging, is mentioned in the Rigveda¹ and later.²

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i. 179, 6 (possibly metaphorical: see Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 172; the passage is obscure).
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² Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, viii. 2, 4, etc.

Khanitrima, 'produced by digging,' as an epithet of āpaḥ, 'waters,' clearly refers to artificial water channels used for irrigation, as practised in the times of the Rigveda¹ and the Atharvaveda.²

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<sup>1</sup> vii. 49, 2.

<sup>2</sup> i. 6, 4; xix. 2, 2.
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Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 236; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 5, 466.

Khara, 'ass,' is mentioned in the Aitareya Āraṇyaka,¹ where a team of asses is alluded to. Probably the passages in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,² where the word is used to denote an earth mound on which the sacrificial vessels were placed, presuppose the sense of 'ass,' the mound being shaped in this form.³

⁶ Taittirīya Samhitā, iii. 5, 7, 1.

⁷ It is called bahu-sāra, 'of great strength,' in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 4, 9.

⁸ Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka, xii. 8. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 58, 58.

¹ iii. 2, 4.
2 v. 1, 2, 15; xiv. 1, 2, 17; 2, 2, 30.

8 Cf. St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Khargalā is an 'owl' or other nocturnal bird mentioned in one passage of the Rigveda.¹

1 vii. 104, 17. Cf. Kausika Sūtra, 107; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 93.

Kharjūra is the name of a tree (Phanix silvestris) which is mentioned in the Yajurveda.¹

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 4, 9, 2; Kāthaka Samhitā, xi. 10; xxxvi. 7. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 63.

Khala, the 'threshing-floor,' is mentioned in the Rigveda¹ and the Atharvaveda.² See Kṛṣi.

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1 x. 48, 7; Nirukta, iii. 10.
2 xi. 3, 9; khala-ja, 'produced on a threshing-floor,' Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 9, 6.
threshing-floor,' viii. 6, 15; khalya,

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 238.
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Khala-kula is a word occurring in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad,¹ where Sāyaṇa glosses it by Kulattha, a kind of pulse (Dolichos uniflorus).

1 vi. 3, 22 (Mādhyamdina = vi. 3, 13 Kānva). Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 355.

Khalva is some sort of grain or leguminous plant, perhaps, as Weber¹ thinks, the *Phaselus radiatus*. It is mentioned with other grains of all sorts in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā,² and as being crushed with the **Dṛṣad** in the Atharvaveda.³ It occurs also in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad,⁴ where Śaṅkara glosses it with niṣpāva.

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1 Indische Studien, 1, 355.
2 xviii. 12, where Mahīdhara glosses it by cuṇaka, 'chick-pea.'
3 ii. 31, 1; v. 23, 8.
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Khāṇḍava is mentioned in the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka¹ as one of the boundaries of Kurukṣetra. There seems no reason to doubt its identity with the famous Khāṇḍava forest of the Mahābhārata. The name occurs also in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa² and the Śāṭyāyanaka.³

³ Max Müller, Rgveda,² iv, ci.

⁴ v. 1, 1.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 78.

Khādi occurs frequently in the Rigveda denoting either anklets¹ or armlets,² or sometimes rings on the hands.³ Max Müller⁴ considers that the word means quoits, the later Cakra.⁵ The rings were sometimes of gold.⁶

1 v. 54, 11, and perhaps 53, 4.

² This is what Khādis on the shoulders must mean, i. 166, 9; vii. 56, 13.

3 i. 168, 3; khādi-hasta, 'with rings on the hands,' 5, 58, 2. So Roth takes Khādin in vi. 16, 40; St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. Khādin occurs also in ii. 34, 2; x. 38, 1.

⁴ Sacred Books of the East, 32, 120, 230.

⁵ Cf. vṛṣa-khādi, Rv. i. 64, 10.

⁶ Hiranya-khādi, Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iii. 5, 12; viii. 23, 6.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 262; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 5, 149.

Khārī designates a measure of Soma in one passage of the Rigveda.¹

1 iv. 32, 17. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 280.

Khārgali, 'descendant of Khargalā or Khrgala,' is the metronymic or patronymic of Luśākapi.¹

1 Kāthaka Samhitā, xxx. 2; Pañcavimsa Brāhmana, xvii. 4, 3.

I. Khila,¹ Khilya² appear to have the same meaning. According to Roth,³ these terms denote the waste land lying between cultivated fields; but he admits that this sense does not suit the passage of the Rigveda⁴ in which it is said that the god places the worshipper on an unbroken Khilya (abhinne khilye), and he accordingly conjectures the reading akhilya-bhinne, 'land unbroken by barren strips.' Pischel⁵ thinks that the meaning intended is broad lands, which were used for the pasturing of the cattle of the community, and were not broken up by cultivated fields. Oldenberg, 6 however, points out that the sense is rather the land which lay between cultivated fields, but which need not be deemed to have been unfertile, as Roth thought. This agrees with the fact that in Vedic times separate fields were already known: see Kṣetra.

¹ Av. vii. 115, 4; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, viii. 3, 4, 1.

² Rv. vi. 28, 2; x. 142, 3.

³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. So Whitney on Av., loc. cit.

⁴ vi. 28, 2.

⁵ Vedische Studien, 2, 205.

⁶ Rgveda-Noten, 1, 385, 386.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 236; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3,499; Keith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1910, 228.

2. Khila as a designation of certain hymns appended to the received text of the Rigveda occurs only in the Sūtra period.¹ The term is a metaphorical application of the preceding word, 'a space not filled up,' 'a supplement.'

1 See Scheftelowitz, Die Apokryphen des Rgveda, 16 et sea.

Khṛgala, or, as the Paippalāda recension of the Atharvaveda¹ has it, Khugila, is an obscure expression found in two passages only—once in the Rigveda,² and once in the Atharvaveda.¹ In the former the meaning 'crutch' seems required; in the latter Sāyaṇa glosses it by 'armour' (tanu-trāṇa), but the sense is quite uncertain.

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1 iii. 9, 3.
2 ii. 39, 4.
Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Athar-
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vaveda, 340; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 98.

Khela occurs in one passage of the Rigveda, where Pischel considers that a god, Vivasvant, is meant, and that races were run in his honour, explaining thus the phrase $\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ khelasya, as in the race of Khela. Roth thinks that a man is meant, and Sieg, following Sāyaṇa, sees in him a king whose Purohita was Agastya. See also Amśu.

G.

Gangā, the modern Ganges, is mentioned directly in the Rigveda only once, in the Nadī-stuti or 'Praise of Rivers.' But it is also referred to in the derivative form gāngyah as an epithet of Urukakṣa. The name of this river does not occur

¹ i. 116, 15.

² Vedische Studien, 1, 171-173.

³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

⁴ Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 127, 128. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 4, 28.

¹ x. 75, 5.

² vi. 45, 31. ³ The reference to the Ganga remains, even if with Oldenberg (*Rgveda-* ings n. 1.

i meant, and not a proper name (cf. Wackernagel, Altindische Grammatik, 2, 288). See also Weber, Proceedings of the Berlin Academy, 1898, 563,

in the other Samhitās, but appears in the Śatapatha Brāhmaņa,4 where victories of Bharata Dauhsanti on both Gangā and Yamunā are referred to, and in the Taittirīya Āraņyaka⁵ especial honour is assigned to those who dwell between the Gangā and the Yamunā, this being, no doubt, the region in which that text originated. The identification of the Ganga with the Apaya6 made by Ludwig7 must be rejected: see Apayā.

4 xiii. 5, 4, 11. The victory on the Gangā represents the farthest extent of Bharata or Kuru rule. Cf. Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 23, and a verse in the Vaitāna Sūtra, xxxiv. 9, where the Sarasvatī is also referred to.

- ⁵ ii. 20.
- 6 Rv. iii. 23, 4.
- 7 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 200.
- Zimmer, Cf. Altindisches Leben, 4, 5.

Gaja, the common name of the elephant in Epic1 and later Sanskrit, is only found in the late Adbhuta Brāhmana.2 Hastin.

1 Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 265, 269.

² Indische Studien, 1, 39.

Gaṇaka, 'an astrologer,' occurs in the list of victims at the Purusamedha, or human sacrifice, in the Yajurveda. See also Naksatradarśa.

¹ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 20; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 15, 1. Cf. Weber, Indische Streifen, 1, 78.

Gandharvāyaņa Bāleya ('descendant of Bali') Āgniveśya is mentioned as a Pañcāla in the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra (xx. 25).

Gandhara is a later form of the name of the people called Gandhāri in the Rigveda and Atharvaveda. In the Chāndogya Upanișad1 the Gandhāras are referred to as being distant from the writer. See also Gandhara.

1 vi. 14, 1.2. See Oldenberg, Buddha, 399, n.; Weber, Indische Studien, I, 219, n. On the other hand, Max Müller, were near the writer.

Sacred Books of the East, 15, 106, thought the passage meant that the Gandharas

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Gandhāri is the name of a people in the north-west of India. In the Rigveda¹ the good wool of the sheep of the Gandhāris is referred to. The Gandharis are also mentioned with the Mūjavants, Angas, and Magadhas in the Atharvaveda.2 Gandhāris3 or Gāndhāris4 are also spoken of in the Śrauta Sūtras.⁵ Zimmer⁶ considers that they were settled in Vedic times on the south bank of the Kubhā up to its mouth in the Indus, and for some distance down the east side of the Indus itself. They later formed a portion of the Persian empire, and detachments of Gandarians accompanied Xerxes in his expedition against Greece.7

1 i. 126, 7.

Gaya Plata

² v. 22, 14. The latter two tribes are apparently the Eastern limit of the poet's knowledge, the two former the Northern.

3 Hiranyakeśi Śrauta Sūtra, xvii. 6; Āpastamba Śrauta Sūtra, xxii. 6, 18.

4 Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xxi. 13.

5 See Caland, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 56, 553.

6 Altindisches Leben, 30, 31.

7 Keith, Aitareya Āranyaka, 23.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 206.

Gabhasti denotes, according to Roth,1 the pole of a chariot in the epithet syūma-gabhasti, 'having reins as a pole,' used of the car of the gods in the Rigveda,² and independently in the plural in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa.³ The meaning is, however, doubtful.4 Roth⁵ himself suggests that syūma-gabhasti may refer to a sort of double reins.

³ ii. 7, 13, 4.

I. Gaya, 'house,' is a common word in the Rigveda, and sometimes occurs later.² As its sense includes the inmates as Well as their belongings, it is equivalent to 'household.'

² Av. vi. 3, 3; 84, 1; Vājasaneyi ¹ i. 74, 2; v. 10, 3; 44, 7; vi. 2, 8, Samhitā, xxvii. 3.

2. Gaya Plāta ('son of Plati') is referred to in the Rigveda,1 two hymns of which he clearly claims to have composed, and which which are attributed to him in the Sarvanukramani and the

Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.2 In the Atharvaveda3 he appears with Asita and Kasyapa as a half-mythical magician.4

- 2 v. 2. 3 i. 14, 4. Cf. also the Khila after Rv. v. 51, 15; Indische Studien, 3, 214.
- 4 Bloomfield, American Journal of Philology, 17, 403.
- Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 133; Weber, Indische Studien, 3, 460.
- 1. Gara, 'poison,' is referred to in the Λtharvaveda¹ in the compound gara-gīrṇa, 'poisoned.' In the Satapatha Brāhmaņa² it means simply a 'fluid.'
- 1 v. 18, 13. Cf. gara alone, Pañca- | 10; gara-gir, 'poisoned,' Pañcavimsa vimsa Brāhmana, xix. 4, 2 (see Indische Studien, 1, 33); Taittirīya Āraņyaka, i. 9,
 - Brāhmaṇa, xvii. 1, 9; xix. 4, 2. 10. ² xi. 5, 8, 6.
- 2. Gara is mentioned in the Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa¹ as the author of a Saman or Chant, and as a friend of Indra.
- 1 ix. 2, 16. Cf. Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 52.

Garga is the name of a sage who is not mentioned in any of the Samhitas,1 but his descendants, the Gargah Prāvareyāh, are referred to in the Kāthaka Samhitā.2 Garga himself does not occur till the Sūtra period.3

- 1 The authorship of Rv. vi. 47 is attributed to Garga Bhāradvāja in the Anukramani.
- 2 xiii. 12. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 3, 374
- 3 Garga-trirātra, Garga-tryaha, a three-night or three-day feast of Garga. See Āśvalāyana Srauta Sūtra, x. 2; Sānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 22, 2; Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xxiii. 2, 8.

Gargara, apparently the designation of a musical instrument, is mentioned once in the Rigveda.1

1 viii. 69, 9. Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 144, n. 1; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 289.

Garta in the Rigveda 1 primarily denotes the seat of the chariot on which the archer sat. It seems to have been of considerable

1 vi. 20, 9. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 246, 247. Zimmer wrongly takes this passage to refer to standing in the car. See Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 238, 239; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 3, 48, and cf. garta-sad, 'sitting on the car seat,' in Rv. ii. 33,

size, being described as brhant,2 'large.' The word then comes to denote the chariot 3 itself, either really or metaphorically.4

2 v. 62, 8; 68, 5. 3 So probably in v. 62, 5; gartā-ruh, 'mounting the chariot,' in Rv. i. 124, 7; Nirukta, iii. 5, may refer merely to

mounting the seat. The passage is obscure; see Geldner, Rigveda, Kommentar, 22.

4 vii. 64, 4 (of the hymn).

Gardabha, 'the ass,' is mentioned in the Rigveda¹ as inferior to the horse. In the Taittirīya Samhitā he again appears as inferior to the horse,2 but at the same time as the best bearer of burdens (bhāra-bhāritama) among animals.3 The same authority styles the ass dvi-retas, 'having double seed,'4 in allusion to his breeding with the mare as well as the she-ass. The smallness of the young of the ass, and his capacity for eating, are both referred to.5 The disagreeable cry of the animal is mentioned in the Atharvaveda,6 and in allusion to this the term 'ass' is applied opprobriously to a singer in the Rigveda.7 A hundred asses are spoken of as a gift to a singer in a Vālakhilya hymn.8 The mule (aśvatara) is the offspring of an ass and a mare, the latter, like the ass, being called dviretas,9 'receiving double seed,' for similar reasons. The male ass is often also termed Rāsabha. The female ass, Gardabhī, is mentioned in the Atharvaveda 10 and the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upanisad.11

1 iii. 53, 23. A car drawn by asses is referred to in the Aitareya Brāhmana, iv. 9; see also Khara.

² V. I, 2, I. 2.

3 v. I, 5, 5.

4 v. 1, 5, 5; vii. 1, 1, 2; Jaiminīya Brāhmana, i. 57, 4 (Oertel, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 177-180): of the Rāsabha, Satapatha Brāhmana, vi. 3, 1, 23.

⁵ Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 1, 5, 5.

6 viii, 6, 10.

7 i. 29, 5.

8 viii. 56, 3. 9 Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 1, 1, 2. 3;

Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa, vi. 1, 6; Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, i. 57, 4.

11 i. 4, 8. For other references to the ass as Gardabha, see Av. v. 31, 3; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 34; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, iv. 5, 1, 9; xii. 7, 1, 5.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 232,

233.

Gardabhī-mukha is mentioned as a teacher in the Vamsa Brāhmaṇa.1 1 Indische Studien, 4, 384.

Gardabhī-vipīta, or Gardabhī-vibhīta, is the name of a teacher who was a Bhāradvāja and a contemporary of Janaka, mentioned in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.

1 iv. 1, 11 (Mādhyamdina=iv. 1, 5 Kāņva).

Garmut is the name of a kind of wild bean mentioned in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā.¹ The Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā.² has the form Ganmut, which is probably a false reading. The adjective gārmuta, 'made from the Garmut bean,' is found in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā.³

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<sup>1</sup> ii. 4, 4, I. 2.
<sup>2</sup> x. II.
<sup>3</sup> ii. 2, 4.
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Cf. St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Zimmer, Altind.sches Leben, 71.

Galunta is a word occurring only once in the Atharvaveda,¹ apparently in the sense of 'swelling,'² but Whitney³ translates it by 'neck.'

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<sup>1</sup> vi. 83, 3.

<sup>2</sup> Bloomfield, Proceedings of the
American Oriental Society, October, 1887,

xvi; Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 505.
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³ Translation of the Atharvaveda, 343.

Galūnasa Ārkṣākāyaṇa ('descendant of Pkṣāka') is mentioned as a teacher in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (i. 38, 4).

Gavaya, the name of a species of ox (Bos gavaeus) occurs frequently from the Rigveda¹ onwards.² It is mentioned with Gaura and Mahiṣa in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā,³ where also a wild Gavaya is spoken of.⁴

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1 iv. 21, 8.

2 Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 10;
Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xvi. 17; Vāja-
saneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 28; Aitareya
Brāhmaṇa, ii. 8; iii. 34; Śatapatha
Brāhmaṇa, i. 2, 3, 9; Śāṅkhāyana
Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 3, 14, etc.
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⁸ xxiv. 28.

⁴ xiii. 49; Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 2, 10, 3; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, ii. 7, 17; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xvi. 17.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 83, 84.

Gavāsir, 'mixed with milk,' is a frequent epithet of Soma in the Rigveda.¹

¹ i. 137, 1; 187, 9; ii. 41, 3; iii. 32, 2; 42, 1. 7; viii. 52, 10; 101, 10. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 279.

Gav-iṣṭi (lit. 'desire of cows') in several passages of the Rigveda¹ denotes 'conflict' or 'battle,' evidently with reference to cattle raids. Gavyā² is similarly used.

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1 i. 91, 23; iii. 47, 4; v. 63, 5; vi. 31, 3; 47, 20; 59, 7; viii. 24, 2; ix. 76, 2. So Av. iv. 24, 5.

2 Rv. vii. 18, 7.
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Gavi-ṣṭhira Ātreya ('descendant of Atri') is mentioned as a Rṣi, or seer, in the Rigveda¹ and the Atharvaveda.²

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<sup>1</sup> v. 1, 12; x. 150, 5.

<sup>2</sup> iv. 29, 5. See also Āśvalāyana | Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 126.

Srauta Sūtra, xii. 14, *.
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Gavīdhukā,¹ Gavedhukā,² is the name of a species of grass (Coix barbata). It is also referred to in the adjectival forms $g\bar{a}v\bar{\iota}dhuka^3$ and $g\bar{a}vedhuka$.⁴ It was boiled with rice⁵ ($gav\bar{\iota}dhuk\bar{a}yav\bar{a}g\bar{\iota}u$) or barley⁶ ($gavedhuk\bar{a}.saktavah$) in preparing gruel.

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    <sup>1</sup> Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 4, 3, 2.
    <sup>2</sup> Šatapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 2, 4, 13;
    <sup>3</sup> Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 8, 7, 1;
    <sup>4</sup> Šatapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 2, 4, 11.
    <sup>3</sup> Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 8, 7, 1;
    <sup>4</sup> Šatapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 2, 4, 11.
    <sup>5</sup> Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 4, 3, 2.
    <sup>6</sup> Šatapatha Brāhmaņa, ix. 1, 1, 8.
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Gavya. See Gavyūti.

Gavyā. See Gavișți.

Gavyūti in the Rigveda¹ means, according to Roth,² grass land for the pasturing of cattle, in which sense Gavya is also found.³ Thence it derives the sense of a measure of distance found in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.⁴ Geldner, on the other hand, takes the original meaning to be 'road,' real⁵ or metaphorical,7 thence a measure of distance,8 and finally 'land.'9

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1 i. 25, 16; iii. 62, 16; v. 66, 3; v. 77, 4, etc.

2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

3 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iv. 28; St.
Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. 3b.

4 Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xvi. 13, 12.
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Gāngya, 'being on the Ganges,' is the epithet of Urukakṣa¹ or of a thicket2 in the Rigveda.3

¹ Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. Cf. Wackernagel, Altindische Grammatik, 2, 288; Weber, Episches im vedischen Ritual, 28.

² Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 398. ³ vi. 45, 31.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 2, 291, n.

Gāngyāyani, 'descendant of Gāngya,' occurs as the patronymic of Citra in the Kausītaki Upaniṣad.1

1 i. 1. There is a v.l. Gargyayani. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 395.

Gātu. See Gāthā.

Gāthā in the Rigveda¹ usually means only 'song,' 'verse,' like Gātu.2 In one passage,3 however, it already has a more special sense, as it is classed with Nārāśamsī and Raibhī, a collocation repeatedly found later.4 The commentators identify the three terms with certain verses of the Atharvaveda,5 but Oldenberg⁶ has shown that this identification is incorrect for the Rigveda. Gāthās are often mentioned elsewhere,7 and are referred to as metrical in the Aitareya Āraṇyaka,8 where the Re, Kumbyā, and Gāthā are classed as forms of verse. The Aitareya Brāhmaņa⁹ distinguishes between Rc and Gāthā as divine and human respectively. According to the usage of the

1 viii. 32, 1; 71, 14; 98, 9; ix. 99, 4; gātha, i. 167, 6; ix. 11, 4; gātha-pati, 'lord of song,' i. 43, 4; gāthā-nī, 'leading a song,' i. 190, 1; viii. 92, 2; rjugātha, 'singing correctly,' v. 44, 5; gāthin, 'singer,' i. 7, 1. Cf. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 65.

² i. 151, 2; ii. 20, 5; iii. 4, 4; iv. 4, 6; v. 87, 8; x. 20, 4; 122, 2.

³ x. 85, 6.

4 Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 5, 11, 2; Kāthaka Samhitā, Aśvamedha, v. 2; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vi. 32; Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa, xxx. 5; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5, 6, 8, where Raibhī does not occur; Gopatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 6,

5 Viz., Gāthā = Av. xx. 127, 12 et seq.;

Nārāsamsī = Av. xx. 127, 1-3; Raibhī =Av. xx. 127, 4-6; while ibid., 7-10, are known as Pārikṣityaḥ (scil., ṛcaḥ).

6 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 238. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 689 et seq., seems to accept the identification even for the Rigveda.

⁷ Av. x. 10, 20; xv. 6, 4 (distinct from Nārāśaṃsī); Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 4, 16; xi. 5, 7, 10; xiii. 1, 5, 6; 4, 2, 8; 5, 4, 2; Taittirīya Āraņ. yaka, ii. 10 (distinct from Nārāśaṃsī); Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iv. 17, 9, etc.

8 ii. 3, 6, with Keith's note; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5, 7, 10.

9 vii. 18. The story of Sunahsepa is described as sata-gātham, 'told in a hundred Gāthās.'

Brāhmaṇas and the liturgical literature, as stated by the St. Petersburg Dictionary, the Gāthās are, though religious in content, distinguished from Rc, Yajus, and Sāman as non-Vedic—that is, are not Mantras. This view is consistent with the fact that the phrase Yajña-gāthā, meaning a verse summarizing a sacrificial usage, is not rare. The Satapatha Brāhmaṇa 10 preserves several Gāthās, which generally accord with this description as epitomizing the sacrifices of famous kings, and the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā 11 states that a Gāthā is sung at a wedding. Sometimes 12 Gāthā is qualified as Nārāśaṃsī, where it must be a eulogy of a generous donor.

where the Gāthās are plainly Dānastutis, or 'praises of gifts,' just as the Nārāśaṃsī verses are declared to be in the Bṛhaddevatā, iii. 154.

11 iii. 7. 3.

12 Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 2, 6. So Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 98, takes Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5, 6, 8, where Sāyaṇa hesitates between identifying the two and distinguishing them. It seems reasonable to regard

Gāthā as the wider term which covers, but is not coextensive with, Nārāśaṃsī. Cf. Sāyaṇa's example of a Gāthā in his commentary on Aitareya Āraṇyaka, ii. 3, 6. prātaḥ prātar anṛtaṃ te vudanti, 'they every morning tell an untruth,' which is clearly not a Nārāśaṃsī.

Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 689 et seq.; Weber, Episches im Vedischen Ritual, 4 et seq.; Max Müller, Ancient Sanskrit Literature, 493.

Gāthin is mentioned as the son of Kuśika and father of Viśvāmitra in the Sarvānukramaṇī. It is difficult to say whether this tradition is correct; it derives some support from the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (vii. 18), where reference is made to the divine lore (daiva veda) of the Gāthins, which is said to be shared by Śunaḥśepa as a result of his adoption by Viśvāmitra. See Gāthina.

Gāthina.—The sons of Viśvāmitra are described in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa¹ as Gāthinas, or descendants of Gāthin, who, according to tradition, was their grandfather;² and Viśvāmitra himself is styled Gāthina in the Sarvānukramaṇī.

¹ vii. 18. Cf. Asvalā ana Śrauta Sūtra, vii. 18; Weber, Episches im Vedischen Ritual, 16, n. 3.

² Cf. Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 1², 34⁸ et seq.; Parolter, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1910, 32 et seq. 15

Gām-dama is the form in the Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa¹ of the name of Ekayāvan, which in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa² is read as Kāṃdama.

1 xxi. 14, 20.
2 ii. 7, 11, 2. Cf. Hopkins, Transac- and Sciences, 15, 69.

Gāndhāra, 'a king of Gandhāra' named Nagnajit, is mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.¹ In the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa² he or some descendant figures as Svarjit Nāgnajita or Nagnajit, and as giving an opinion on the ritual, which is rejected with the observation that the author was merely a princely person (rājanya-bandhu).

1 vii. 34, in the list of teachers who handed down the knowledge of the substitute for Soma.

² viii. 1, 4, 10.

Gārgī Vācaknavī is referred to in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad¹ as a female contemporary and rival of Yājñavalkya.

1 iii. 6, 1; 8, 1. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 118.

Gārgī-putra, 'son of Gargī,' occurs as the name of three ceachers in the last Vaṃśa (list of teachers) in the Mādhyaṃdina recension of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (vi. 4, 30). The earliest of these three was the pupil of Bāḍeyīputra and the teacher of the second Gārgīputra. The latter was the teacher of Pārāśarīkauṇḍinīputra, the teacher of the third Gārgīputra.

Gārgya, 'descendant of Garga,' is the patronymic of Bālāki in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka¹ and the Kauṣītaki² Upaniṣads. Two Gārgyas are mentioned in the second Vaṃśa (list of teachers) in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad³: one of them is the pupil of Gārgya, who again is the pupil of Gautama. Others occur in the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka⁴ and in the Nirukta,⁵ as well as later in the ritual Sūtras. Thus the family was evidently long connected with the development of liturgy and grammar.

¹ ii. I, I. ² iv. I.

³ iv. 6, 2 (Kāṇva).

⁴ i. 7, 3.

⁵ i. 3. 12; iii. 13.

Gārgyāyaṇa, 'descendant of Gārgya,' is mentioned as a pupil of Uddālakāyana in the second Vaṃśa (list of teachers) in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (iv. 6, 2 Kāṇva).

Gārgyāyaṇi, 'descendant of Gārgya,' is a variant reading for Gāṅgyāyani as the patronymic of Citra in the Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad (i. 1).

Gālava is mentioned as a pupil of Vidarbhīkauṇḍinya in the first two Vaṃśas (lists of teachers) in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.¹ It is possibly the same man that is referred to regarding a point of ritual in the Aitareya Āraṇyaka.² A grammarian of this name is mentioned in the Nirukta.³

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1 ii. 5, 22; iv. 5, 28 (Mādhyaṃdina = 3 iv. 3. Cf. Pāṇini, vi. 3. 61; vii. 1, ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3 Kāṇva).

2 v. 3, 3.
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Giri, 'mountain' or 'height,' is a word that occurs repeatedly in the Rigveda.¹ Thus reference is made to the trees on the hills, hence called 'tree-haired' (vṛṣṣa-keśāh),² and to the streams proceeding from the hills to the sea (samudra).³ The term is frequently coupled with the adjectival parvata.⁴ The Rigveda mentions the waters from the hills,⁵ and the Atharvaveda⁶ refers to the snowy mountains. Actual names of mountains, as Mūjavant, Trikakud, Himavant, are very rare. References to Kraunca, Mahāmeru, and Maināga, are confined to the Taittirīya Āranyaka, while Nāvaprabhraṃśana can no longer be considered a proper name.¹

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1 i. 56, 3; 61, 14; 63, 1; iv. 20, 6; vii. 24, 8, etc.

2 Rv. v. 41, 11.

3 Rv. vii. 95, 2.

4 Rv. i. 56, 4; viii. 64, 5; Av.
iv. 7, 8; vi. 12, 3; 17, 3; ix. 1, 18, etc.

5 Rv. vi. 66, 11, on which passage,
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Giri-kṣit Auccā-manyava, 'descendant of Uccāmanyu,' is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (x. 5, 7) as a contemporary of Abhipratārin Kākṣaseni.

Giri-ja Bābhravya, 'descendant of Babhru,' is mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (vii. I) as having been taught by Śrauta the method of dividing the sacrificial animal (paśor vibhakti).

Guggulu, 'bdellium,' is referred to in one passage of the Atharvaveda 1 as produced by the Sindhu 2 and by the sea. The latter source presumably alludes, as Zimmer3 assumes, to seaborne trade, bdellium being the gum of a tree, not a product of the sea. It is, however, possible that in this passage some other substance may be meant. The word in this form also occurs elsewhere in the Atharvaveda4 and læter;5 it is often6 mentioned in the older form of Gulgulu, between which and Guggulu the manuscripts constantly vary.

Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 8, 5; Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa, xxiv. 13; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 5, 2, 16.

Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 675; Lassen, Indische Alterthumskunde, 12, 339; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 957, 958.

Gungu.—The descendants of Gungu are referred to as Gungus in a hymn of the Rigveda,1 apparently as friends of Atithigva. Possibly a people may be meant.

1 x. 48, 8. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 165.

Gupta is the name in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 42) of Vaipascita Dārdhajayanti Gupta Lauhitya. All the three other names being patronymics show that he was descended from the families of Vipaścit, Drdhajayanta, and Lohita.

Gulgulu. See Guggulu.

Grtsa-mada is the name of a seer to whom the Sarvānukramanī attributes the authorship of the second Mandala of the Rigveda. This tradition is supported by the Aitareya Brāh-

¹ xix. 38, 2.

² Or 'from streams' (saindhava), as Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. guggulu, suggests.

³ Altindisches Leben, 28.

⁴ ii. 36, 7.

⁵ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 28.

⁶ Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 2, 8, 6;

maṇa 1 and the Aitareya Āraṇyaka. 2 The Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa 3 speaks of him as a Bhargava, 'descendant of Bhrgu,' with a variant Bābhrava, 'descendant of Babhru,' but the later tradition keeps to the former patronymic.4 The Grtsamadas are often mentioned in the second Mandala of the Rigveda,5 and are also called Sunahotras,6 but never Gartsamadas or Saunahotras, and Grtsamada himself never occurs there.7

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1 v. 2, 4.
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7 Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 200,

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 118; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 3, 287.

Grdhra, 'the vulture,' is often mentioned from the Rigveda¹ downwards.2 The swiftness of its flight3 and its fondness for devouring carrion are especially noticed.4 More generally the word is used to designate any bird of prey, the eagle (Syena) being classed as the chief of the Grdhras.5

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1 i. 118, 4; ii. 39, 1; vii. 104, 22;
x. 123, 8.
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Gṛṣṭi, 'a young cow,' which has only calved once, occurs in the Rigveda¹ and the Atharvaveda,² as well as in the later Sūtra literature.3

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1 iv. 18, 10.
<sup>2</sup> ii. 13, 3; viii. 9, 24; xix. 24, 5.
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Grha is used in the singular,1 or oftener in the plural,2 to denote the 'house' of the Vedic Indian. Dama or Dam has

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<sup>1</sup> Rv. iii. 53, 6; iv. 49, 6; viii. 10, 1,
etc.; Av. vii. 83, 1; x. 6, 4; Aitareya
Brāhmaņa, viii. 21.
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² ii. 2, I.

³ xxii. 4. Cf. Gartsamadī, xxviii. 2.

⁴ Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 12, 226 et seq.

⁵ ii. 4, 9; 19, 8; 39, 8; 41, 18.

⁶ ii. 18, 6; 41, 14. 17.

² Av. vii. 95, 1; xi. 2, 2; 9, 9; 10. 8. 24; Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 4, 7, 1; v. 5, 20, 1; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iv. 9, 19; Taittirīya Āranyaka, iv. 29; Adbhuta Brahmana in Indische Studien, I, 40; etc.

⁴ Av. xi. 10, S. 24; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, loc. cit.

⁵ Rv. ix. 96, 6.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 88; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 225.

³ Kausika Sūtra, 19. 24, etc.

² Rv. ii. 42, 3; v. 76, 4; x. 18, 12; 85, 26; 142, 4; 165, 2; Av. i. 27, 4;

iii. 10, 11; vi. 137, 1; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, ii. 31; viii. 26; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, ii. 32; iv. 33; xviii. 44; Śatapatha Brāhmana, i. 1, 2, 22; 6, 1, 19, etc.

the same sense, while Pastyā and Harmya denote more especially the home with its surroundings, the family settlement. The house held not only the family, which might be of considerable size, but also the cattle³ and the sheep⁴ at night. It was composed of several rooms, as the use of the plural indicates, and it could be securely shut up.⁵ The door (Dvār, Dvāra) is often referred to, and from it the house is called Duroṇa. In every house the fire was kept burning.⁶

Very little is known of the structure of the house. Presumably stone was not used,⁷ and houses were, as in Megasthenes' time,⁸ built of wood. The hymns of the Atharvaveda⁹ give some information about the construction of a house, but the details are extremely obscure, for most of the expressions used do not recur in any context in which their sense is clear. According to Zimmer,¹⁰ four pillars (Upamit) were set up on a good site, and against them beams were leant at an angle as props (Pratimit). The upright pillars were connected by cross beams (Parimit) resting upon them. The roof was formed of ribs of bamboo cane (vamśa),¹¹ a ridge called Viṣūvant, and a net (Akṣu), which may mean a thatched covering ¹² over the bamboo ribs. The walls were filled up with grass in bundles (palada), and the whole structure was held together with ties of

³ Rv. vii. 56, 16; Av. i. 3, 4; ix. 3,

⁴ Rv. x. 106, 5; Av. iii. 3.

⁵ Rv. vii. 85, 6.

⁶ Rv. i. 69, 2. Cf. the Gārhapatya Agni, Av. v. 31, 5; vi. 120, 1; 121, 2; viii. 10²; ix. 6, 30; xii. 2, 34; xviii. 4, 8; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, iii. 39; xix. 18; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 6. 12; Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 6, 1, 28; vii. 1, 1, 6, etc.

⁷ Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 153. Muir's view, Sanskrit Texts, 5, 461, that clay was used can only apply to the minor finishing of the walls of a house.

⁸ Arrian, Indica, x. 2.

⁹ iii. 12; ix. 3. See Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 343 et seq.; Weber, Indische Studien, 17, 234 et seq.;

Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 525 et seq.

¹⁰ Op. cit., 153. No certainty can attach to the rendering of the words.

¹¹ It seems likely that, as the ribs were of bamboo and were probably fixed in the ridge, the roof was wagonheaded, like the huts of the Todas at the present day (see illustrations in Rivers, The Todas, pp. 25, 27, 28, 51), and the rock-cut Chaityas, or Assembly Halls, of the Buddhists in Western India, in some of the earliest of which the wooden ribs of the arched roof are still preserved. See Fergusson, History of Indian Architecture, 2, 135, cf. 126.

¹² Av. ix. 3, 8, where Bloomfield, op. cit., 598, thinks of a wickerwork roof; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 1, 136, of a pole with countless holes.

various sorts (nahana, prāṇāha, saṃdaṃśa, pariṣvañjalya).¹³ In connexion with the house, mention is made of four terms which, though primarily sacrificial in meaning, seem to designate parts of the building: Havirdhāna, 'oblation-holder'; Agniśāla, ¹⁴ 'fireplace'; Patnīnāṃ Sadana, 'wives' room'; and Sadas, 'sitting room.' Slings or hanging vessels (Śikya) are also mentioned. ¹⁵ Reedwork (iṭa) is spoken of, no doubt as part of the finishing of the walls of the house. ¹⁶ The sides are called Pakṣa. The door with its framework was named Ātā.

13 Av. ix. 3, 4. 5.

14 Zimmer conjecturally identifies the Agnisāla with the central room, the Havirdhāna with a place for keeping the grain, etc. (e.g., Av. iii. 3, 4), the Patnīnāṃ Sadana with the women's

apartments, and the Sadas with the subsidiary buildings.

15 Av. ix. 3, 6. See Whitney, op. cit., 526; Bloomfield, op. cit., 597.

16 Av. ix. 3, 17.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 148-156.

Gṛha-pa¹ or Gṛha-pati² is the regular name, from the Rigveda onwards, of the householder as master of the house. Similarly the mistress is called Gṛha-patnī.³ For the powers and position of the Gṛhapati see Pitṛ.

¹ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 11.

² Rv. vi. 53, 2; Av. xiv. 1, 51; xix. 31, 13; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 6, S, 5; viii. 6, 1, 11, and repeatedly as an epithet of Agni, Rv. i. 12, 6; 36, 5;

60, 4; vi. 48, 8; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, ii. 27; iii. 39; ix. 39; xxiv. 24, etc. ³ Rv. x. 85, 26; Av. iii. 24, 6. *Cf.* Gārhapatya, Rv. i. 15, 12; vi. 15, 19; x. 85, 27, 36.

Grhya denotes the members of the house or family in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa.

1 ii. 5, 2, 14; 3, 16; 6, 2, 4; iii. 4, 1, 6; xii. 4, 1, 4. Cf. grhāḥ, i. 7, 4, 12.

Gairi-kṣita, 'descendant of Girikṣit,' is the patronymic of Trasadasyu in the Rigveda,¹ and of the Yaskas in the Kāṭhaka Samhitā.²

¹ v. 33, 8; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 155, 174.

I. Go (a), 'ox' or 'cow.' These were among the chief sources of wealth to the Vedic Indian, and are repeatedly

¹ i. 83, 1; 135, 8; ii. 23, 18, etc.; | dhenavalı, Rv. i. 173, 1; vi. 45, 28; gāva ukṣaṇaḥ, i. 168, 2; Av. iii. 11, 8; x. 95, 6; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxi. 19, Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxi. 20; gāvo etc.

referred to from the Rigveda onwards.2 The milk (Kṣīra) was either drunk fresh or made into butter (Ghrta) or curds (Dadhi). or was mixed with Soma or used for cooking with grain (Kṣīraudana). The cows were milked thrice a day, early (prātar-doha), in the forenoon (Samgava), and in the evening (sāyam-doha).3 Thrice a day they were driven out to graze, according to the Taittiriya Brāhmaņa 4 (prātah, samgave, sāyam). The first milking was productive, the last two scanty.3 According to the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,5 among the Bharatas the herds in the evening are in the Gostha, at midday in the Samgavinī. This passage Sayana expands by saying that the herds go home to the Śālā, or house for animals, at night so far as they consist of animals giving milk, while the others stayed out in the Gostha, or open pasturage; but both were together in the cattle-shed during the heat of the day. The time before the Samgava, when the cows were grazing freely on the pastureland, was called Svasara.6 When the cows were out feeding they were separated from the calves, which were, however, allowed to join them at the Samgava,7 and sometimes in the evening.8

While grazing the cattle were under the care of a herdsman (Gopā, Gopāla) armed with a goad, but they were liable to all sorts of dangers, such as being lost, falling into pits, breaking limbs, 10

² The five sacrificial animals are man, goat, sheep, ox, horse, Sānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, ix. 23, 4; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, ii. 4, 3, 13; iii. 1, 2, 13; iv. 5, 5, 10; xiv. 1, 1, 32.

3 Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 5, 3, 1.

4 i. 4, 9, 2. The exact sense of this notice is obscure. Strictly speaking, the cows were driven out from the cattleshed in the morning, spent the heat of the day in the Samgavinī, were then driven out during the evening to graze, and finally came or were driven home, as is often mentioned: Rv. i. 66, 5;

149, 4; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xv. 41.

⁵ iii. 18, 14.

⁶ Rv. ii. 2, 2; 34, 8; v. 62, 2; viii. 88, 1; ix. 94, 2. The going of the cows to their pasture in the morning is often referred to-e.g., Rv. i. 25, 16.

⁷ Rv. ii. 2, 2; viii. 88, 1; Taittiriya Brāhmana, ii. 1, 1, 3; Śankara on Chāndogya Upaniṣad, ii. 9, 4; Jaiminīya Upanișad Brāhmaņa, i. 12, 4; Nārāyaņa on Āśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iii. 12, 2.

8 Gobhila Grhya Sūtra, iii. 8, 7; Rv. ii. 2, 2. See Geldner, Vedische

Studien, 2, 111-114.

⁹ Pavīravān, Rv. x. 60, 3, is probably so meant. The usual name was Aşirā. the significant mark of a Vaisya. Cf. Rv. vii. 33, 6.

10 Rv. i. 120, 8; vi. 54, 5-7. Also Pusan was the special deity expected to guard cattle, and hence is called anastapaśu, 'losing no kine.' See Rv. x. 17,2, and Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 36. and being stolen. The marking of the ears of cattle was repeatedly adopted, no doubt, to indicate ownership.11

Large herds of cattle were well-known, as is shown by the Dānastutis, or 'praises of gifts,' in the Rigveda, 12 even when allowances are made for the exaggeration of priestly gratitude. The importance attached to the possession of cattle is shown 13 by the numerous passages in which the gods are asked to prosper them, and by the repeated prayers 14 for wealth in kine. Hence, too, forays for cattle (Gavișți) were well known; the Bharata host is called the 'horde desiring cows' (gavyan grāmaḥ) in the Rigveda; 15 and a verbal root gub, 16 'to protect,' was evolved as early as the Rigyeda from the denominative go-pāya, 'to guard cows.' The Vedic poets 17 do not hesitate to compare their songs with the lowing of cows, or to liken the choir of the singing Apsarases to cows. 18

The cattle of the Vedic period were of many colours: red (rohita), light (śukra), dappled (pṛśni), even black (kṛṣṇa).19 Zimmer 20 sees a reference to cows with blazes on the face in one passage of the Rigveda,21 but this is uncertain.

Oxen were regularly used for ploughing or for drawing wagons (anadvāh), in which case they were, it seems, usually castrated.22 Cows were not properly used for drawing carts, though they at times did so.23 The flesh of both cows and tills was sometimes eaten (Māmsa). Cattle were certainly the

¹¹ Rv. vi. 28, 3; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iv. 2, 9, and cf. Aştakarnī and Svadhiti.

¹² Rv. viii. 5, 37, etc. Cf. Pañcavimśa Brāhmana, xvii. 14, 2; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, viii. 21. 23; Satapatha Brahmana, xiii. 5, 4, 8 et seq.

¹³ Rv. i. 43, 2; 162, 22; v. 4, 11; ix. 9, 9, etc.; Av. i. 31, 4; ii. 26, 4; v. 29, 2; vi. 68, 3; viii. 7, 11, x. 1, 17. 29; xi. 2, 9. 21, etc.; Taittiriya Samhitā, iii. 2, 3, 1; v. 5, 5, 1; vi. 5, 10, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, iii. 59.

¹⁴ Rv. i. 83, 1; iv. 32, 17; v. 4, 11; viii. 89, 2, etc.

¹⁵ iii. 33, II.

¹⁶ Rv. vii. 103, 9; Av. x. 9, 7, 8; xix. 27, 9. 10. Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, p. 358, n. 13.

¹⁷ Rv. vii. 32, 22; viii. 95, 1; 106, 1; ix. 12, 2, etc.

¹⁸ Rv. x. 95, 6. It is, however, uncertain whether the names of Apsarases are meant in this passage. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 5, 517.

¹⁹ Rv. i. 62, 9. Various other colours are mentioned in the lists of animals at the Aśvamedha, or human sacrifice, in the Yajurveda, but apparently as exceptional.

²⁰ Altindisches Leben, 226.

²¹ i. 87, 1. It is also rendered as ' the heavens with stars.'

²² Av. iii. 9, 2; vi. 138, 2; Taittirīya Samhita, i. S. 9, 1; Weber, Indische Studien, 13, 151, n. See Mahanirasta.

²³ Satapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 2, 4, 13.

objects of individual ownership, and they formed one of the standards of exchange and valuation (see Kraya).

(b) The term Go is often applied to express the products of the cow. It frequently means the milk, but rarely the flesh of the animal. In many passages it designates leather used as the material of various objects, as a bowstring, or a sling, or thongs to fasten part of the chariot, or reins, or the lash of a whip. See also Carman, with which Go is sometimes synonymous.

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<sup>1</sup> Rv. i. 33, 10; 151, 8; 181, 8; ii. 30, 7; iv. 27, 5; ix. 46, 4; 71, 5.

<sup>2</sup> Rv. x. 16, 7 (in the funeral ritual).

<sup>3</sup> Rv. vi. 75, 11; x. 27, 22; Av. i. 2, 3.

<sup>4</sup> Rv. i. 121, 9.
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(c) Gāvaḥ means the stars of heaven in two passages of the Rigveda, according to Roth.

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<sup>1</sup> i. 154, 6; vii. 36, r. <sup>2</sup> St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. 5.
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2. Go Āngirasa ('descendant of Angiras') is the reputed author of a Sāman or Chant in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.¹ There is little doubt that he is mythical.²

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1 xvi. 7, 7. Cf. Lātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, vi. 11, 3. 160; Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 2 Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 15, 68.
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Go-ghāta, 'a cow-killer,' is enumerated in the list of victims at the Puruṣamedha, or human sacrifice, in the Yajurveda. See Māṃsa.

Gotama is mentioned several times in the Rigveda, but never in such a way as to denote personal authorship of any hymn. It seems clear that he was closely connected with the

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<sup>1</sup> Rv. i. 62, 13; 78, 2; 84, 5; 85, 11; <sup>2</sup> Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen iv. 4, 11. <sup>Morgenländischen Gesellschaft</sup>, 42, 215.
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Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 18; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 16, 1.

Angirases, for the Gotamas frequently refer to Angiras.³ That he bore the patronymic Rāhūgaṇa is rendered probable by one hymn of the Rigveda,⁴ and is assumed in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,⁵ where he appears as the Purohita, or domestic priest, of Māthava Videgha, and as a bearer of Vedic civilization. He is also mentioned in the same Brāhmaṇa⁶ as a contemporary of Janaka of Videha, and Yājñavalkya, and as the author of a Stoma.⁷ He occurs, moreover, in two passages of the Atharvaveda.⁸

The Gotamas are mentioned in several passages of the Rigveda, Vāmadeva and Nodhas being specified as sons of Gotama. They include the Vājaśravases. See also Gautama.

³ Cf. Rv. i. 62, 1; 71, 2; 74, 5; 75, 2; 78, 3; iv. 2, 5; 16, 8, etc.

4 Rv. i. 78, 5. Cf. Oldenberg, loc.

cit., 236, n. 1.

⁵ i. 4, 1, 10 et seq.; xi. 4, 3, 20. The former passage is wrongly cited by Sāyaṇa on Rv. i. 81, 3. See Weber, Indische Studien, 2, 9, n.

6 xi. 4, 3, 20.

⁷ xiii. 5, 1, 1; Āśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, ix. 5, 6; 10, 8, etc. 8 iv. 29, 6; xviii. 3, 16. See also Şadvimsa Brāhmana in *Indische Studien*, 1, 38; Brhadāranyaka Upanişad, ii. 2, 6.

9 i. 60, 5; 61, 16; 63, 9; 77, 5;
78, 1; 88, 4; 92, 7; iv. 32, 9. 12;
viii. 88, 4. Cf. Āśvalāyana Śrauta
Sūtra, xii. 10.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 110, 123; Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 170, 180; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 3, 151, 152.

Gotamī-putra, 'son of Gotamī,' is mentioned as a pupil of Bhāradvājī-putra in the Kāṇva recension of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (vi. 5, 1). See also Gautamī-putra.

Gotra occurs several times in the Rigveda¹ in the account of the mythic exploits of Indra. Roth² interprets the word as 'cowstall,' while Geldner³ thinks 'herd' is meant. The latter sense seems to explain best the employment which the term shows in the later literature as denoting the 'family' or 'clan,' and which is found in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad.⁴

In the Grhya Sūtras⁵ stress is laid on the prohibition of

¹ i. 51, 3; ii. 17, 1; 23, 18; iii. 39, 4; 43, 7; viii. 74, 5; x. 48, 2; 103, 7.

² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

³ Vedische Studien 2, 275, 276, whe

³ Vedische Studien, 2, 275, 276, where he divides the passages according as real or mythical herds are meant.

4 iv. 4, 1. So Śāńkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, i. 4, 16, etc.; Aśvalāyana Gṛhya Sūtra, iv. 4, etc. ; Kausitaki Brāhmaņa,

XXV. 15.

⁵ Gobhila Grhya Sūtra, iii. 4, 4; Āpastamba Dharma Sūtra, ii. 5, 11, 15. 16, in Max Müller, Ancient Sanshrit Literature, 387. For sapiņēļa, see Gautama Dharma Sūtra, xiv. 13; Vasistha Dharma Sūtra, iv. 17-19.

marriage within a Gotra, or with a Sapinda of the mother of the bridegroom—that is to say, roughly, with agnates and cognates. Senart⁶ has emphasized this fact as a basis of caste, on the ground that marriage within a curia, phratria, or caste (Varna) was Indo-European, as was marriage outside the circle of agnates and cognates. But there is no evidence at all 7 to prove that this practice was Indo-European, while in India the Satapatha⁸ expressly recognizes marriage within the third or fourth degree on either side. According to Sāyaṇa, the Kāṇvas accepted marriage in the third degree, the Saurāṣṭras only in the fourth, while the scholiast on the Vajrasūcio adds to the Kānvas the Andhras and the Dākṣinātyas, and remarks that the Vajasaneyins forbade marriage with the daughter of the mother's brother. All apparently allowed marriage with the daughter of a paternal uncle, which later was quite excluded. Change of Gotra was quite possible, as in the case of Śunaḥśepa and Grtsamada, who, once an Angirasa, became a Bhārgava.10

⁸ i. 8, 3, 6.

Cf. Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 61 et seq.; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 323.

Go-dāna appears to mean 'the whiskers' in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,¹ where the person, being consecrated, first shaves off the right and then the left 'whisker.' Later on the Godānavidhi, or ceremony of shaving the head, is a regular part of the initiation of a youth on the attainment of manhood and on marriage;² but though the ceremony is recognized in the Atharvaveda,³ the name⁴ does not occur there.

⁶ Les Castes dans l'Inde, 210 et seq. Cf. De la Vallée Poussin, Le Védisme, 15.

⁷ Keith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1909, 471, 472.

⁹ See Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 73-76.

¹⁰ Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 157; Festgruss an Roth, 108.

¹ iii. 1, 2, 5. 6.

² Āśvalāyana Grhya Sūtra, i. 19; Śānkhāyana Grhya Sūtra, i. 28, etc.

³ vi. 68. See Kauśika Sūtra, liii. 17-20. But Av. ii. 13 is not to be classed here as in the Kauśika; it refers to the giving of a new garment to a child, and the removal of its first wrap. See Whitney, Translation of the Atharva-

veda, 56, 57, correcting Weber, Indische Studien, 13, 173, and Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 322, 323. Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 306, 574, 665.

The meaning 'whisker' is a secondary one, derived, doubtless, from the 'gift of a cow' (go-dāna), accompanying the ceremony of shaving the whiskers or hair.

Godhā.—(a) The sense of 'bowstring' seems certain in one passage of the Rigveda,¹ and possible in another.² Roth³ also adopts this meaning in the only passage of the Atharvaveda⁴ where the word occurs.

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1 x. 28, 10. 11.
2 viii. 69, 9. See Hopkins, Journal
of the American Oriental Society, 17, 53.
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(b) In one passage of the Rigveda¹ the sense of 'musical instrument' is recognized by Roth and by Hillebrandt² for this word.

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1 viii. 69, 9.
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- (c) Elsewhere an animal seems to be meant, perhaps the 'crocodile,' as Ludwig and Weber think; perhaps a large 'lizard,' as Roth and Zimmer assume. An animal is probably also meant in the Atharvaveda.
- ¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 15, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 35; Pañcavimša Brāhmaņa, ix. 2, 14; Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, ii. 5; Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, i. 221; Śātyāyanaka in Sāyaṇa on Rv. viii. 91; Journal of the American Oriental Society, 18, 29.
- ² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 499-³ Indische Studien, 18, 15, 16. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 368, renders the word vaguely by 'dragon.'
 - 4 Altindisches Leben, 95.
- ⁵ iv. 3, 6, where Whitney offers no rendering at all.

Go-dhūma, 'wheat,' is frequently referred to in the plural in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās¹ and Brāhmaṇas,² and is expressly distinguished from 'rice' (Vrīhi) or 'barley' (Yava).³ 'Groats' (saktavaḥ) made of this grain are also mentioned.⁴ The word occurs in the singular in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.⁵

¹ Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, i. 2, 8; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xviii. 12; xix. 22. 89; xxi. 29, etc.

² Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, xii. 7, 1, 2; 2,
 ⁹; Brhadāraņyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 3, ²² (Mādhyamdina=vi. 3, 13 Kānva), etc.

- 3 Taittiriya Brāhmaņa, i. 3, 7, 2.
- 4 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xii. 9, 1, 5.
- 5 v. 2, 1, 6. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 241.

Go-pati, 'lord of cows,' is freely used in the Rigveda¹ to denote any lord or master, a natural usage considering that cattle formed the main species of wealth.

³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. 1. ⁴ iv. 3, 6.

² Vedische Mythologie, 1, 144, n. 1.

¹ i. 101, 4: iv. 24, 1; vi. 45, 21; vii. 18, 4, etc. Av. iii. 14, 6, etc.

Gopa-vana is the name of a poet of the race of Atri in the Rigveda. See Gaupavana.

1 viii. 74, 11. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 215; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 107.

Go-pā and Go-pāla, 'protector of cows,' occur in the Rigveda¹ and later, but the former is usually metaphorical in sense, applying to any protector, while the latter has the literal force of 'cow-herd.'

1 Gopā: Rv. i. 164, 21; ii. 23. 6; iii. 10, 2; v. 12, 4, etc.; Gopāla: Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 11; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 1, 5, 4. Gopā, in the sense of 'guardian,' occurs in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xxiv. 18, in a

compound. Gopītha, in the sense of 'protection,' occurs in Rv. v. 65, 6; x. 35, 14, etc. Geptr, 'protector,' first occurs in Av. x. 10, 5, and is thereafter common.

Go-bala ('ox-strength') Vārṣṇa ('descendant of Vṛṣṇi') is mentioned as a teacher in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā (iii. 11, 9, 3) and the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (i. 6, 1).

Go-matī, 'possessing cows,' is mentioned as a river in the Nadī-stuti, or 'Praise of Rivers,' in the tenth Maṇḍala of the Rigveda.¹ In that hymn a river flowing into the Indus must be meant, and its identification with the Gomal, a western tributary of the Indus, cannot be doubted. In one other passage of the Rigveda the accentuation of Gomatī shows that a river is meant. It is possible that in a third passage the reading should be changed to gomatīr from gómatīr. Geldner suggests that in the two last passages the Gumti, or rather its four upper arms (hence the use of the plural) is meant: this accords well with the later use of the name and with the general probability of the river here intended being in Kurukṣetra, as the centre of Vedic civilization.6

¹ х. 75, б.

² Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 14; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 200.

³ viii. 24, 30.

⁴ v. 61, 19. See Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 355, 356.

⁵ Vedische Studien, 3, 152, n. 2.

O Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 218; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 19, 19 et seq.; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 174; Keith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1908, 1141.

Go-māyu, 'lowing like a cow,' does not occur as the name of the 'jackal' till the late Adbhuta Brāhmana.¹

1 Indische Studien, 1, 40.

Go-mṛga, a species of ox, now called Gayal (Bos gavaeus), is mentioned in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās¹ and Brāhmaṇas.² In the Taittirīya Saṃhitā³ it is declared to be neither a wild nor a tame animal; this presumably means that it was semidomesticated, or perhaps that it was both tamed and found wild. With the name of this animal may be compared the Mṛga Mahiṣa, which is clearly mentioned as wild in the Rigveda.⁴ See also Gayava.

¹ Maitrāyaņī Sambitā, iii. 14, 11; Vājasaneyi Sambitā, xxiv. 1. 30.

² Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xiii. 3, 4, 3; 5, 2, 10; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 8, 20, 5.

³ ii. 1, 10, 2. ⁴ ix. 02. 6.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 83, 84; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 338, n. 1.

Golattikā is the name of some unknown animal in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Yajurveda.¹

¹ Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 16, 1; saneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 37. Cf. Zimmer, Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 18; Vāja- Altindisches Leben, 99.

Go-vikartana ('cow-butcher') designates the 'huntsman' in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (v. 3, 1, 10). See Goghāta.

¹ Cf. Taittiriya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 16, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 18; Weber, Indische Streifen, 1, 82.

Go-vyaca. See Vyaca.

Gośarya is the name of a protégé of the Aśvins in the Rigveda (viii. 8, 20; 49, 1; 50, 10).

Go-śru Jābāla is mentioned as a sage in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 7, 7).

Go-śruti Vaiyāghra-padya ('descendant of Vyāghrapad') is mentioned as a pupil of Satyakāma in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (v. 2, 3). In the Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka (ix. 7) the name appears as Gośruta.

Go-ṣādī ('sitting on a cow') is the name of a bird in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Yajurveda.¹

1 Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 14, 5; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 24. Cf. Zimmer, Altināisches Leben, 94.

Go-ṣūktin is mentioned in the Sarvānukramaṇī as the author of Rigveda viii. 14 and 15, and a Sāman or Chant of his seems to be referred to in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xix. 4, 9), under the title of Gauṣūkta. But see Gauṣūkti.

Go-ṣṭha, 'standing-place for cows,' denotes not so much a 'cowstall' as the 'grazing ground of cows,' as Geldner¹ shows from a passage of the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa² and from a note of Mahīdhara on the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā.³ This sense suits adequately all the passages of the Rigveda⁴ where it occurs, and it greatly improves the interpretation of a hymn of the Atharvaveda,⁵ besides being acceptable elsewhere.⁶ See also Go.

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1 Vedische Studien, 3, 112, 113.
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tory, and Bloomfield's 'stable' is no

⁶ Av. ii. 26, 2; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, iii. 21; v. 17; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, xi. 8, 3, 2, etc.; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, vii. 7; Maitrāyaṇī Samhitā, iv. 2, 11.

Gautama, 'descendant of Gotama,' is a common patronymic, being applied to Aruna, Uddālaka Āruni, Kuśri, Sāti, Hāridrumata.

Several Gautamas are mentioned in the Vaṃśas (lists of teachers) in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad as pupils of Āgniveśya,⁶ of Saitava and Prācīnayogya,⁷ of Saitava,⁸ of Bhārad-

² iii. 18, 14.

³ iii. 21.

⁴ i. 191, 4; vi. 28, 1; viii. 43, 17.

⁵ iii. 14, 1. 5. 6, where Whitney's | xi. 8, 3, 2, etc.; Kāṭhaka Saṃnita rendering 'stall' is very unsatisfac- | vii. 7; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iv. 2, 11.

¹ Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, x. 6, 1, 4.

² Ibid., xi. 4, 1, 3; 5, 1, 2; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 1, 7; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 3,6 ct scq.; Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad, i. 1; Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, i. 42, 1.

³ Satapatha Brāhmaņa, x. 5, 5, 1.

⁴ Vamsa Brāhmaņa in Indische Studien,

 ⁵ Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iv. 4, 3.
 ⁶ Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 6, 1
 (Kānya).

⁷ Ibid., ii. 6, 2.

⁸ Ibid., iv. 6, 2.

vāja,9 of Gautama,10 and of Vātsya.11 A Gautama is also referred to elsewhere.

9 Ibid., ii. 6, 2 (Kānva = ii. 5, 22; iv. 5, 27 Mādhyamdina).

10 Ibid., ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3 (Kānya= ii. 5, 22; iv. 5, 28 Mādhyamdina).

11 Ibid., ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3 (Kānva=

ii. 5, 20. 22; iv. 5, 26 Mādhyamdina). The Mādhyamdina, ii. 5, 20: iv. 5, 26, knows a Gautama, pupil of Vaijavāpāvana and Vaisthapureya.

Gautami-putra ('son of a female descendant of Gotama') is mentioned in the Kanva recension of the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad (vi. 5, 2) as a pupil of Bhāradvājīputra. In the Mādhyamdina (vi. 4, 31) a Gautamīputra is a pupil of Ātreyīputra, pupil of a Gautamiputra, pupil of Vatsiputra. See also Gotamīputra.

Gaupa-vana ('descendant of Gopavana') is mentioned as a pupil of Pautimāṣya in the first two Vamśas (lists of teachers) in the Kanva recension of the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad (ii. 6, 1; iv. 6, 1).

Gaupāyana ('descendant of Gopa'). The Gaupāyanas appear in the legend of Asamāti, Kirāta, and Ākuli, which is first met with in the Brāhmanas.1

¹ Pañcavimśa Brāhmana, xiii. 12, 5; Jaiminīya Brāhmana, iii. 167 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 18, 41); Śātyāyanaka in Sāyana on Rv. x. 57

(Max Müller's edition, 42,c et seq.); Brhaddevatā, vii. 83 et seq., with Macdonell's notes.

Gaupālāyana ('descendant of Gopāla') is the patronymic of Śucivrksa in the Maitrāyanī Samhitā.1 It is also the patronymic of Aupoditi, Sthapati of the Kurus, in the Baudhayana Śrauta Sūtra,2 and, as Gaupāleya, of Upoditi or Aupoditi in the Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa.3

2 xx. 25. 3 xii. 13, 11, where the edition has ¹ iii. 10, 4 (p. 135, line 9). Cf. Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 48, 9, where Upoditi. Aufrecht reads Gaupalāyana.

Gaura, a species of ox (Bos gaurus), is frequently mentioned with the Gavaya from the Rigveda 1 onwards. 2 As the Vājasaneyi Samhitā³ expressly mentions wild (āranya) Gauras, they ¹ i. 16, 5; iv. 21, 8; 58, 2; v. 78, 2; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 28; Aitareya i. 69, 6; 98, 1, etc.

vii. 69, 6; 98, 1, etc.

² Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 14, 10,

3 xiii. 48.

16

must usually have been tame. The female, Gaurī, is also often referred to.⁴ The compound term Gaura-mṛga ('the Gaura wild beast') is sometimes met with.⁵

4 Rv. i. 84, 10; iv. 12, 6; ix. 12, 3; and in the obscure verse i. 164, 11.

⁵ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 32; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, ii. 8. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 83, 224.

Gauri-vīti Śāktya ('descendant of Śakti') or Gaurīviti, as the name is also spelt,¹ is the Ḥṣi, or Seer, of a hymn of the Rigveda,² and is frequently mentioned in the Brāhmaṇas.³ According to the Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa,⁴ he was Prastotr at the Sattra, or sacrificial session, celebrated by the Vibhindukīyas and mentioned in that Brāhmaṇa.

- ¹ Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xii. 8, 3, 7; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5; xii. 13; xxv. 7.
 - ² v. 29, 11.
- ³ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 19; viii. 2; and see n. 1.
- ⁴ ii. 233 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 18, 38).
- Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 126; Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 215.

Gauśra ('descendant of Guśri') is the name of a teacher mentioned in the Kauṣītaki Brāhmana (xvi. 9; xxiii. 5). See Gauśla.

Gauśrāyaṇi ('descendant of Gauśra') is the patronymic of a teacher, Citra, in the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa (xxiii. 5).

Gauśla, a variant of Gauśra, is the name of a teacher represented as in disagreement with Budila Āśvatara Āśvi in the Aitareya Brāhmana.¹

1 vi. 30. Cf. Gopatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 6, 9 (Gośla).

Gau-ṣūkti is the name of a pupil of Iṣa Śyāvāśvi according to the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa¹ in a Vaṃśa (list of teachers). It is also the name, in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa,²

¹ iv. 16, 1.
2 xix. 4, 9. Cf. St. Petersburg
Dictionary, s.v.; Hopkins, Transactions

of a teacher who appears to have been needlessly invented to explain the Gauṣūkta Sāman (chant), which is really the Sāman of Goṣūktin.

Graha ('seizing') is a term applied to the sun in the Satapatha Brāhmana, most probably not in the later sense of planet,' but to denote a power exercising magical influence.2 The sense of 'planet' seems first to occur in the later literature, as in the Maitrāyaṇī Upaniṣad.3 The question whether the planets were known to the Vedic Indians is involved in obscurity. Oldenberg 4 recognizes them in the Ādityas, whose number is, he believes, seven: sun, moon, and the five planets. But this view, though it cannot be said to be impossible or even unlikely, is not susceptible of proof, and has been rejected by Hillebrandt,⁵ Pischel,⁶ von Schroeder,⁷ Macdonell,⁸ and Bloomfield,9 among others. Hillebrandt10 sees the planets in the five Adhvaryus mentioned in the Rigveda, 11 but this is a mere con-The five bulls (ukṣāṇaḥ) in another passage of the Rigveda¹² have received a similar interpretation with equal uncertainty,13 and Durga, in his commentary on the Nirukta,14 even explains the term bhūmija, 'earth-born,' which is only mentioned by Yāska, as meaning the planet Mars. 15 Thibaut, 16 who is generally sceptical as to the mention of planets in the Veda, thinks that Brhaspati there refers to Jupiter; but this is extremely improbable, though in the Taittiriya Samhita17 Brhaspati is made the regent of Tisya. A reference to the

1 iv. 6, 5, 1.

3 vi. 16. See Weber, Indian Litera-

ture, 98, n.

5 Vedische Mythologie, 3, 102 et seq.

10 Vedische Mythologie, 3, 423.

11 iii. 7, 7.

¹² i. 105, 10. *Cf.* also i. 105, 16, with Oldenberg's note.

13 Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 24, 36.

14 i. 14.

15 See Weber, Jyotişa, 10, n. 2.

16 Astronomie, Astrologic, und Mathematik, 6.

17 iv. 4 10, 1. Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, pp. 102-104.

² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 26, 432, n. 2.

⁴ Religion des Veda, 185 et seq.; Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 50, 56 et seq.

⁶ Göttingische Gelehrte Anzeigen, 1895.

⁷ Vienna Oriental Journal, 9, 109.

⁸ Vedic Mythology, p. 44.

⁹ Religion of the Veda, 133 et seq.

planets is much more probable in the seven suns (sapta sūryāh) of the late Taittiriya Āraṇyaka. 18 On the other hand, Ludwig's efforts to find the five planets with the sun, the moon, and the twenty-seven Naksatras (lunar mansions) in the Rigveda, as corresponding to the number thirty-four used in connexion with light 19 (jyotis) and the ribs of the sacrificial horse,20 is farfetched. See also Śukra, Manthin, Vena.

18 i. 7. See on them Weber, Omina und Portenta, 339; Indische Studien, 2, 238; 9, 363; 10, 240, 271; Jyotisa, 10; Rāmāyaņa, 28, n. 2. 20 i. 162, 18.

19 x. 55, 3. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rig-

veda, 3, 183 et seq.; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 354 et seq.; Max Müller, Rgveda, iv.2, xxx. et seq.; Whitney, Oriental and Linguistic Essays, 2, 412, n. Journal of the American Oriental Society 16, lxxxviii.

Grābha (lit. 'grasping') designates the 'throw' of dice in the Rigveda.1 See also Glaha.

1 viii. 81, 1; ix. 106, 3. Cf. Lüders, Das Würfelspiel im alten Indien, 49, 50.

Grāma.—The primitive sense of this word, which occurs frequently from the Rigveda1 onwards, appears to have been 'village.' The Vedic Indians must have dwelt in villages which were scattered over the country, some close together,2 some far apart, and were connected by roads.3 The village is regularly contrasted with the forest (aranya), and its animals and plants with those that lived or grew wild in the woods.4 The villages contained cattle, horses, and other domestic animals, as well as men.5 Grain was also stored in them.6 In the evening the cattle regularly returned thither from the forest.7 The villages were probably open, though perhaps a fort (Pur) might on

1 i. 44, 10; 114, 1; ii. 12, 7 (perhaps to be taken as in n. 10); x. 146, 1; 149, 4, etc.; Av. iv. 36, 7. 8; v. 17, 4; vi. 40, 2, etc.; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, iii. 45; xx. 17, etc.

² Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xiii. 2, 4, 2; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, iii. 44.

8 Chăndogya Upanișad, viii. 6, 2.

4 Animals: Rv. x. 90, 8; Av. ii. 34, 4; iii. 10, 6; 31, 3; Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 2, 2, 1; Kāthaka Samhitā, vii. 7; xiii. 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, ix. 32; Pañcavimsa Brāhmana, xvi. 1, 9; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, iii. 8. 4, 16, etc. Plants: Taittirīva Samhitā, v. 2, 5, 5; vii. 3, 4, 1, etc.

⁵ Av. iv. 22, 2; viii. 7, 11, etc.

6 Brhadāranyaka Upanişad, vi. 3, 13 (Kānva = 22, Mādhyamdina).

7 Rv. x. 149, 4; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iv. I, I.

occasion be built inside.8 Presumably they consisted of detached houses with enclosures, but no details are to be found in Vedic literature. Large villages (mahāgrāmāh) were known.9

The relation of the villagers is difficult to ascertain with precision. In several passages 10 the word occurs with what appears to be the derivative sense of 'body of men.' This sense presumably started from the use of the word to denote the 'village folk,' as when Saryāta Mānava is said in the Satapatha Brāhmaņa 11 to have wandered about with his 'village' (grāmena); but, as Zimmer12 observes, this restricted sense nowhere appears clearly in the Rigveda,13 where indeed the 'folk' (jana) 14 of the Bharatas is in one passage 15 called the 'horde seeking cows' (gavyan grāmaḥ). Zimmer16 tends to regard the Grāma as a clan, and as standing midway between the family and the tribe (Viś). The Grāma may, however, perhaps be regarded more correctly 17 as an aggregate of several families, not necessarily forming a clan, but only part of a clan (Viś), as is often the case at the present day.18

Vedic literature tells us very little about the social economy of the village. There is nothing to show that the community as such held land. What little evidence there is indicates that individual tenure of land was known (see Urvarā, Kșetra), but this, in effect though not in law, presumably meant tenure by a family rather than by an individual person. The expression

8 As nowadays. See Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 144, citing Hügel, Kashmir,

9 Jaiminīya Upanisad Brāhmaņa,

iii. 13, 4.

10 Rv. i. 100, 10; iii. 33, 11; x. 27, 1; 127, 5; Av. iv. 7, 5; v. 20, 3 (where, however, 'villages' is quite probable); Satapatha Brāhmaņa, iv. 1, 5, 2; vi. 7, 4, 9; xii. 4, 1, 3. Cf. n. 1.

11 iv. I, 5, 2. 7.

12 Altindisches Leben, 161.

13 See passages cited in n. 10.

14 Rv. iii. 53, 12.

15 Rv. iii. 33, 11.

16 Op. cit., 159, 160, where, however, his language is not very clear. Cf. Hopkins, Religions of India, 27, who points out that Zimmer is inaccurate in identifying the tribe with Vis. It is the clan, a division below that of the

tribe (Jana). 17 A village might contain a whole clan, but probably it contained at most a section of a clan. By family is meant a Hindu joint family; but the extent to which such families existed, and the number of persons included, cannot even be conjectured from the available evidence. Cf. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 393; Leist, Altarisches Jus Gentium, 34.

18 Cf. Baden Powell, Village Communities in India, 85 et seq.

'desirous of a village' (grāma-kāma), which occurs frequently in the later Saṃhitās, 19 points, however, to the practice of the king's granting to his favourites his royal prerogatives over villages so far as fiscal matters were concerned. Later 20 the idea developed that the king was owner of all the land, and parallel with that idea the view that the holders of such grants were landlords. But of either idea there is no vestige in Vedic literature beyond the word grāma-kāma, which much more probably refers to the grant of regalia than to the grant of land, as Teutonic parallels show.21 Such grants probably tended to depress the position of the actual cultivators, and to turn them into tenants, but they can hardly have had this effect to any appreciable extent in early times.

The village does not appear to have been a unit for legal purposes in early days, ²² and it can hardly be said to have been a political unit. The village no doubt, as later, included in its members various menials, besides the cultivating owners, and also the Brāhmaṇas and Kṣatriyas who might hold interest in it by royal grant or usage without actually cultivating land, such as chariot-makers (Ratha-kāra), carpenters (Takṣan), smiths (Karmāra), and others, but they did not presumably, in any sense, form part of the brotherhood. ²³ All alike were politically subject to the king, and bound to render him food or service or other tribute, unless he had transferred his rights to

¹⁹ Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 1, 1, 2; 3, 2; 3, 9, 2; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 1, 9; 2, 3; iv. 2, 7, etc.; Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 32, thinks that grāma here means 'herd' (of cattle).

20 Cf. Baden Powell, Indian Village Community, 207 et seq. Whether or not the idea is already found in Manu, ix. 34, is disputed and uncertain. See Rājan. The germ of it lies in a different sphere—the right of the Kṣatriya, with the consent of the clan, to apportion land (Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vii. 1, 1, 8).

²¹ Cf. Pollock and Maitland, History of English Law, 2, 237 et seq.; Baden

Powell, Village Communities in India, 83; Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, 48. It may be mentioned that we have no Vedic evidence as to the non-sale of land by the members of a family, except the indications mentioned under Urvarā. The later evidence is overwhelming for grāma, meaning 'village.' Cf. Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iv. 2, 4; Śāṅkhāyana Gṛhya Sūtra, i.14; Kauśika Sūtra, 94.

²² Cf. Foy, Die königliche Gewalt, 20, n.; Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 93; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 78, 128.

²³ Cf. Baden Powell, Indian Village Community, 17, 18.

others of the royal family or household, as was no doubt often the case, either in whole or part. The king's share in a village is referred to as early as the Atharvaveda.²⁴

At the head of the village was the Grāma-nī, or 'leader of the village,' who is referred to in the Rigveda.25 and often in the later Samhitas and in the Brahmanas.26 The exact meaning of the title is not certain. By Zimmer 27 the Grāmaņī is regarded as having had military functions only, and he is certainly often connected with the Senānī, or 'leader of an army.' But there is no reason so to restrict the sense: presumably the Grāmaṇī was the head of the village both for civil purposes and for military operations. He is ranked in the Satapatha Brāhmaņa 28 as inferior to the Sūta, or 'charioteer,' with whom, however, he is associated 29 as one of the Ratnins, the 'jewels' of the royal establishment. The post was especially valuable to a Vaisya, who, if he attained it, was at the summit of prosperity (gataśrī).30 The Grāmanī's connexion with the royal person seems to point to his having been a nominee of the king rather than a popularly elected officer. But the post may have been sometimes hereditary, and sometimes no ninated or elective: there is no decisive evidence available. The use of the singular presents difficulties: possibly the Grāmaṇī of the village or city where the royal residence was situated was specially honoured and influential.31

31 Presumably, there must have been many Grāmanīs in a kingdom, but the texts seem to contemplate only one as in the royal entourage. Cf. also Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 41, 60, n.; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 96; Rhys Davids, op. cit., 48, thinks that he was elected by the village council or a hereditary officer, because the appointment is only claimed for the king in late authorities like Manu, vii. 115. But there is not even so much authority for election or heredity, and we really cannot say how far the power of the early princes extended: it probably varied very much. Cf. Rajan and Citraratha.

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²⁴ iv. 22, 2. Cf. n. 20.

²⁵ x. 62, 11; 107, 5.

²⁶ Av. iii. 5, 7; xix. 31, 12; Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 5, 4, 4; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 6, 5 (grāma-nīthya, 'the rank of Grāmanī': cf. Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 4, 5, 2); Kāṭhaka Samhitā, vii. 4; x. 3; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xv. 15; xxx. 20; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 4, 8; 7, 3, 4; ii. 7, 18, 4; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 1, 7; v. 4, 4, 8; viii. 6, 2, 1 (grāmanīthya); Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iv. 3, 37. 38, etc.

²⁷ Altindisches Leben, 171.

²⁵ v. 4, 4, 18.

²⁹ Satapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 3, 1, 5.

³⁰ Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 5, 4, 4; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, i. 6, 5. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 20, n. 2.

Grāmya-vādin apparently means a 'village judge' in the Yajurveda. His Sabhā, 'court,' is mentioned in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā.

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 3, 1, 3; Kāthaka Samhitā, xi. 4; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 2, 1.

Grāha, 'the seizer,' is the name of a disease in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.¹ In the Atharvaveda² it perhaps means 'paralysis' of the thigh.³

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<sup>1</sup> iii. 5, 3, 25; 6, 1, 25.
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retaining the reading of the text urugrāhaiḥ, renders the compound as an adjective, 'wide-gripping.' Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 635.

Grāhi, 'the seizer,' appears in the Rigveda¹ and the Atharvaveda² as a female demon of disease. Her son is sleep (svapna).³

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1 x. 161, 1,

2 ii. 9, 1; 10, 6. 8; vi. 112, 1; 113, 1;

viii. 2, 12; 3, 18; xvi. 7, 1; 8, 1;

xix. 45, 5.
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3 xvi. 5, 1; or perhaps 'dream' is meant.

Cf. Weber. Indische Studien. 13.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 13, 154.

Grīsma. See Rtu.

Graivya, in the Atharvaveda, appears to denote 'tumours on the neck' $(gr\bar{\imath}v\bar{a}h)$.

¹ vi. 25, 2; vii. 76, 2. Cf. Bloomfield, Proceedings of the American Oriental Society, October, 1887, xix.; Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 472

Glaha denotes the 'throw' at dice, like Grābha, of which it is a later form, occurring in the Atharvaveda.¹

1 iv. 28, 1 et seq. Cf. Lüders, Das Würfelspiel im alten Indien, 49.

Glāva Maitreya ('descendant of Maitrī') is mentioned in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad,¹ where he is said to be the same as Vaka Dālbhya. He appears as Pratistotr at the snake festival of the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa,² and is referred to in the Ṣaḍviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.³

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1 i. 12, I. 3. Cf. Gopatha Brāh-
maṇa, i. 1, 31.
2 xxv. 15, 3. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 35, 38.
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² xi. 9, 12.

³ If the reading of the commentary uru-grāhaih be adopted; but Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 653,

Glau occurs in the Atharvaveda1 and in the Aitareya Brāhmana² as the name of some symptom of a disease, probably, as Bloomfield³ thinks, 'boils.' In the one passage of the Vājasaneyi Samhita,4 where it is found the sense is obscure, some part of the sacrificial victim being perhaps meant.5 Cf. Galunta.

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1 vi. 83, 3.
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GH.

Gharma denotes in the Rigveda¹ and later² the pot used for heating milk, especially for the offering to the Aśvins. It hence often3 denotes the hot milk itself, or some other hot drink.

² Av. vii. 73, 6; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, viii. 61; Aitareya Brāhmana, i. 18. 22,

3 Rv. i. 119, 2; 180, 4; vii. 70, 2;

¹ iii. 53, 14; v. 30, 15; 43, 7; 76, 1, | viii. 9, 4, etc.; Av. iv. 1, 2; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxxviii. 6, etc.

Cf. Nirukta, vi. 32; xi. 42; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 271; St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Ghāsa means 'fodder' in the Atharvaveda and later. In the Rigveda³ Ghāsi is used of the fodder of the horse victim at the Asvamedha.

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Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 5, 9, 3; Tait-
<sup>1</sup> Av. iv. 38, 7; viii. 7, 8; xi. 5, 18,
                                               tirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 6, 3, 10, etc.
                                                  3 i. 162, 14.
<sup>2</sup> Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xi. 75; xxi. 43;
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Ghrnīvant is the name of some animal in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā.1 In the parallel passage of the Maitrāyanī Samhitā² Ghṛṇāvant is the reading. Elsewhere the word is adjectival.3

² i. 25.

³ Proceedings of the American Oriental Society, October, 1887, xv.; Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 17, 503; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 343.

⁴ xxv. 8; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 15. 7.

⁵ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Ludwig. Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 500, takes glau as 'owl.'

¹ xxiv. 39.

² iii. 14, 20.

³ Rv. x. 176, 3. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 99.

Ghrta, the modern Ghee or 'clarified butter,' is repeatedly mentioned in the Rigveda¹ and later² both as in ordinary use and as a customary form of sacrifice. According to a citation in Sāyana's commentary on the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,3 the distinction between Ghrta and Sarpis consisted in the latter being butter fully melted, while the former was butter melted and hardened (ghanī-bhūta), but this distinction cannot be pressed. Because the butter was thrown into the fire, Agni as styled 'butter-faced' (ghṛta-pratīka),4 'butter-backed' (ghṛta-pṛṣṭha),5 and 'propitiated with butter' (ghrta-prasatta),6 and 'fond of butter' (ghyta-prī7). Water was used to purify the butter: the waters were therefore called 'butter-cleansing' (ghṛta-pū).8 In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇaº it is said that Ājya, Ghṛta, Āyuta, and Navanīta pertain to gods, men, Pitṛs, and embryos respectively.

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1 i. 134, 6; ii. 10, 4; iv. 10, 6; 58, |
5. 7. 9; v. 12, 1, etc.
  <sup>2</sup> Vājasaneyi Samhitā, ii. 22, etc.;
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4 Rv. i. 143, 7; iii. 1, 18; v. 11, 1;
x. 21, 7, etc.
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Ghṛta-kauśika is mentioned in the first two Vaṃśas (lists of teachers) of the Mādhyamdina recension of the Brhadāranyaka Upanisad¹ as a pupil of Pārāśaryāyaņa.

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1 ii. 5, 21; iv. 5, 27. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 4, 384.
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Ghora Angirasa is the name of a mythical teacher in the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa¹ and the Chāndogya Upaniṣad,² where he is teacher of the strange Krsna Devakīputra. That the name is certainly a mere figment is shown by the fact that this 'dread descendant of the Angirases' has a counterpart in Bhiṣaj Ātharvaṇa,3 'the healing descendant of the Atharvans,' while in the Rigveda Sūtras4 the Atharvāņo vedah is connected

Av. iii. 13, 5, etc.; Satapatha Brāhmana, i. 8, 1, 7 (with Dadhi, Mastu, Amikṣā); ix. 2, 1, 1 (Dadhi, Madhu, Ghrta), etc.

³ i. 3 (p. 240, edition Aufrecht).

⁵ Rv. i. 164, 1; v. 4, 3; 37, 1; vii. 2, 4, etc.

⁶ Rv. v. 15, 1.

⁷ Av. xii. 1, 20; xviii. 4, 41.

⁸ i. 3.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 227.

¹ xxx. 6. Cf. Āśvalāyana Śrauta Sütra, xii. 10.

² iii. 17, 6.

³ Weber, Indische Studien, 3, 459.

⁴ Aśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, x. 7; Śāńkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 2; Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 181.

with bhesajam and the Āngiraso vedah with ghoram. He is accordingly a personification of the dark side of the practice of the Atharvaveda.⁵ He is also mentioned in the Asvamedha section of the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā.⁶

5 Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, xx, xxi, xxxviii; Atharvaveda, 8, 23; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 189, 190; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 160, n. 4.
6 i. 1.

Ghoșa. See Ghoșā.

Ghosavant. See Svara.

Ghoṣā is mentioned as a protégée of the Aśvins in two passages of the Rigveda,¹ probably as the recipient of a husband, who is perhaps referred to in another passage² as Arjuna, though this is not likely. Sāyaṇa finds a reference there to a skin disease, which is considered in the later tradition of the Bṛhaddevatā³ to have been the cause of her remaining unwed, but this view is not tenable. According to Sāyaṇa, her son, Suhastya, is alluded to in an obscure verse of the Rigveda⁴; Oldenberg,⁵ however, here sees a reference to Ghoṣā herself, while Pischel⁰ thinks that the form (ghoṣē) is not a noun at all, but verbal.

¹ i. 117, 7; x. 40, 5. *Cf*. x. 39, 3. 6.
² i. 122, 5. See Oldenberg, *Rgveda-Noten*, 1, 123.

3 vii. 41-48, with Macdonell's notes.

4 i. 120, 5.

6 Vedische Studien, I, 4; 2, 92.

C.

Caka is mentioned with Piśanga as one of the two Unnetr priests at the snake festival in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.¹

⁵ Op. cit., 119. Suhastya is apparently invented from x. 41, 3, probably assisted by the fact that Vadhrimatī was given

a son, Hiranyahasta, by the Asvins (Rv. i. 117, 24).

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 143; Über Methode bei Interpretation des Rigueda, 43; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 5, 247; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 52.

¹ xxv. 15, 3. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 35, who reads Cakka; 10, 142, n. 3, 144

Cakra, the 'wheel' of a chariot or wagon, is repeatedly mentioned from the Rigveda 1 onwards, often in a metaphorical sense. The wheel was fixed on the axle (Aksa) when the chariot was required for use; this required considerable strength, as is shown by a reference in the Rigveda.2 The wheel consisted normally of spokes (Ara), and a nave (Nābhi),3 in the opening (Kha) of which the end of the axle (Ani) was inserted. An indication of the importance attached to the strength of the wheel is the celebration of the car of the god Pūṣan as having a wheel that suffers no damage.⁴ The usual number of wheels was two,5 but in seven passages of the Rigveda⁶ a chariot is called 'three-wheeled,' in a few others 'sevenwheeled,'7 while in one of the Atharvaveda8 it is styled 'eightwheeled.' Zimmer9 argues that these epithets do not refer to real chariots, pointing out that in all the passages where tri-cakra, 'three-wheeled,' occurs there is a mythical reference. On the other hand, Weber 10 thinks that there might have been chariots with three wheels, one being in the centre between the two occupants. This is not very conclusive; at any rate, the seven-wheeled and the eight-wheeled chariots can hardly be regarded as indicating the existence of real vehicles with that number of wheels.

In the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa¹¹ the potter's wheel (kaulāla-cakra) is referred to.

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<sup>1</sup> i. 130, 9; 155, 6; 164, 2. 11, 14;
174, 5; iv. 1, 3, etc.
<sup>2</sup> Av. xi. 7, 4; xix. 53, 1. 2, etc.
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³ Rv. viii. 41, 6. ⁴ Rv. vi. 54, 3.

⁶ Rv. viii. 5, 29; Chāndogya Upani-

sad, iv. 16, 5; Kausītaki Upanisad, i. 4.
6 i. 118, 2; 157, 3; 183, 1; viii. 58, 3;
x. 41, 1; 85. 14 (all of the Aśvins' chariot); iv. 36, 1 (of a chariot made

by the Rbhus, who are three in number),

7 Rv. i. 164, 3. 12; ii. 40, 3.

8 xi. 4, 22.

9 Altindisches Leben, viii., ix.

10 Proceedings of the Berlin Academy, 1898, 564, quoting Virchow, Zeitschrift für Ethnologie, 5, 200.

¹¹ xi. 8, 1, 1.

Cf. Zimmer, op. cit., 247.

Cakra-vāka is the name, apparently derived from the nature of its cry, of a species of gander (Anas casarca), the modern Chakwā, as it is called in Hindī, or Brahmany duck in English. It is mentioned in the Rigveda² and in the list of victims at the

¹ Griffith, Hymns of the Rigveda, 1, 309, n. 4.

Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Yajurveda,3 while in the Atharvaveda 4 it already appears as the type of conjugal fidelity, its characteristic in the classical literature.

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3 Maitrāvanī Samhitā, iii, 14, 3, 13;
                                           Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 89.
Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 22. 32;
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Cakṣus, 'eye.' The 'evil eye' (ghoram cakṣus) was well known in the Atharvaveda, which contains spells to counteract its influence.1 As remedies against it are mentioned salve from Mount Trikakubh² and the Jangida plant.³ In the wedding ceremony the wife is entreated not to have the evil eye (aghoracakṣus).4 The structure of the eye, and its division into white (śukla), dark (kṛṣṇa), and the pupil (kanīnakā) are repeatedly referred to in the later Brāhmanas.⁵ The disease Alaji appears to have been an affection of the eyes.

1 ii. 7; xix. 45, are so employed in the ritual.

2 Av. iv. 9, 6.

3 Av. xix. 35, 3.

Pāraskara Grhya Sūtra, i. 4; Śānkh.

āyana Grhya Sūtra, i. 16.

⁵ Śatapatha Brāhmana, xii. 8, 2, 26; Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, i. 254. 324; Jaiminīya Upanisad Brāhmaņa, i. 26, 1; 34, 1; Brhadāranyaka Upanisad, ii. 2, 2; Aitareya Āraņyaka, ii. 1, 5, etc. So the man (purusa) in the eye is repeatedly mentioned: Chandogya Upanisad, i. 7, 5; iv. 15, 1; Brhadāranyaka Upanisad, ii. 3, 5; iv. 2, 2; v. 5, 2. 4, etc.; Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, i. 27, 2 The Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 2, 3, adds the water (apah) in the eye, the upper and the lower lids (vartani), and seven red lines (lohinyo rājayali).

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 13, 149.

Caṇḍāla,1 Cāṇḍāla,2 are the variant forms of the name of a despised caste, which in origin was probably a tribal body,3 but which in the Brahminical theory was the offspring of Sudra fathers and Brahmin mothers.4 The references to the caste in the Yajurveda Samhitās and in the Upaniṣads show clearly that it was a degraded one, but they yield no particulars.

¹ Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 10, 7, 24, 4; Āśvalāyana Grhya Sūtra, iv. 9; Śānkhāyana Grhya Sūtra, ii. 12; vi. 1,

² Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 21; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 17, 1; Bṛhadāraņyaka Upanişad, iv. 1, 22.

³ Fick, Die sociale Gliederung, 204

⁴ Apparently accepted for the Vedic period by Zimmer, Altindisches Leben,

Cf. von Schroeder, Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 433.

Catus-pad, 'quadruped,' is a regular name for animals from the Rigveda onwards, being frequently contrasted with Dvipad. 'biped.'2 Catus-pāda, as an adjective applying to paśavah, 'animals,' is also found.3

- 1 Rv. i. 49, 3; 94, 5; 119, 1; iii. 62, 14, etc.; Av. iv. 11, 5; x. 8, 21; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, viii. 30; ix. 31; xiv. 8. 25, etc.; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vi. 2; viii. 20, etc.
- ² Rv. x. 117, 8; Av. vi. 107, 1, etc.
- 3 Aitareya Brāhmana, ii. 18; vi. 2; Satapatha Brāhmana, iii. 7, 3, 2; vi. 8, 2, 17, etc.
- I. Candra, Candra-mas, are the names of the 'moon,' the latter occurring from the Rigveda onwards, but the former being first used in this sense by the Atharvaveda. Very little is said about the moon in Vedic literature, except as identified with Soma,3 both alike being described as waxing and waning. Reference is, however, made to the regular changes of the moon, and to its alternation with the sun,5 to which it, as Soma, is declared in the Rigveda to be married.6 Mention is also made of its disappearance at the time of new moon,7 and of its birth from the light of the sun.8 In the Atharvaveda 9 reference is made to demons eclipsing the moon (grahāś cāndramāsāḥ).

For the phases of the moon, and the month as a measure of time, see Māsa. For the moon and its mansions, see Nakṣatra.

1 Av. ii. 15, 2; 22, 1; iii. 31, 6, etc.; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxii. 28; xxxix. 2; Satapatha Brāhmana, vi. 2, 2, 16, etc.

² Rv. i. 105, 1; viii. 82, 8; x. 64, 3; 85, 19; Av. xi, 6, 7; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, i. 28; xxiii. 10. 59, etc.

3 See Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, pp. 112, 113 The identification is clearly found in the later parts of the Rigveda.

4 Rv. x. 55, 5. Cf. Av. x. 8, 32.

⁵ Rv. x. 68, 10. Cf. i. 62, 8; 72, 10. 6 x. 85, 18. 19.

⁷ Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 4, 18;

iv. 6, 7, 12; xi. 1, 6, 19; xiv. 4, 2, 13; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, viii. 28, 8; perhaps Rv. x. 138, 4.

8 Rv. ix. 71, 9; 76, 4; 86, 32; Sāmaveda, ii. 9, 2, 12, 1; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 463 et seq. Cf. Sürya.

⁹ xix. 9, 10. Av. vi. 128 is also regarded by the Kausika Sūtra, c. 3, as referring to an eclipse of the moon. See Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 533.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 349, 350, 352.

2. Candra appears to denote 'gold' in a certain number of passages from the Rigveda onwards.1

1 Rv. ii. 2, 4; iii. 31, 5; Av. xii. 2, 53; Jaittirīya Sambitā, i. 2, 7, 1; Kāthaka Samhitā, ii. 6; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, iv. 26; xix. 93; Pañcavimśa

Brāhmaṇa, vi. 6; Satapatha Brāhmana, iii. 3, 3, 4, etc. Cf. the adjective candrin in Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xx. 37; xxxi. 31.

Capya is found in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā¹ and the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa² as the name of a sacrificial vessel.

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1 xix. 88; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. | 2 xii. 7, 2, 13; 9, 1, 3. 2, 9; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xxxviii. 3.
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Camasa denotes a 'drinking vessel,' usually as employed for holding Soma at the sacrifice. It is frequently mentioned from the Rigveda onwards.¹ It was made of wood (*vṛkṣa*),² and is hence called *dru*.³ According to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,⁴ it was made of Udumbara wood.

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1 Rv. i. 20, 6; 110, 3; viii. 82, 7; x. 16, 8; 68, 8; 96, 9, etc.; Av. vii. 73, 3; xviii. 3, 54; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiii. 13, etc.; Nirukta, xi. 2; xii. 38. 2 Rv. x. 68, 8.
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³ Rv. i. 161, 1. ⁴ vii. 2, 11, 2.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 280; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 167, 168.

Camū is a ter 1 of somewhat doubtful sense occurring repeatedly in the Rigveda, and connected with the preparation of Soma. Zimmer¹ considers that in the dual it denotes the two boards between which, in his opinion, the Soma was crushed (cf. Adhiṣavaṇa). Roth,² however, appears to be right in taking the normal sense to designate a vessel into which the Soma was poured from the press, and Hillebrandt³ shows clearly that when it occurs in the plural⁴ it always has this sense, corresponding to the Graha-pātras of the later ritual, and that sometimes it is so used in the singular⁵ or dual⁶ also. In some cases,7 however, he recognizes its use as denoting the mortar in which the Soma was pressed: he may be right here, as this mode of preparation was probably Indo-Iranian.8

In a derivative sense Camū appears in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa o to denote a trough, either of solid stone or consisting of

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<sup>1</sup> Altindisches Leben, 277, 278.

<sup>2</sup> St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. Cf.

Grassmann, Rigveda, 1, 15.
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3 Vedische Mythologie, 1, 164-175.

⁵ Rv. ix. 107, 18; x. 91, 15.

7 Singular: Rv. v. 51, 4; viii. 4, 4; 76, 10; ix. 46, 3; x. 24, 1. Dual: i. 28, 9; iv. 18, 3; vi. 57, 2; ix. 36, 1.

8 Hillebrandt, op. cit., 1, 158-164.
9 xiii. 8, 2, 1; Eggeling, Sacred Books
of the East. 44, 430, n. I. In Śāńkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiv. 22, 19, the
sense is doubtful.

Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, pp. 105 et seq.

⁴ Rv. iii. 48, 5; viii. 2, 8; 82, 7. 8; ix. 20, 6; 62, 16; 63, 2; 92, 2; 93, 3; 97, 21, 37, 46; 99, 6, 8.

⁶ Rv. ix. 69, 5; 71, 1; 72, 5; 86, 47; 95, 20, 21; 97 2, 48; 103, 4; 107, 10; 108, 70.

bricks, used by the Eastern people to protect the body of the dead from contact with the earth, like modern stone-lined graves or vaults.

Caraka primarily denotes a 'wandering student,' a sense actually found in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.¹ More especially it denotes the members of a school of the Black Yajurveda, the practices of which are several times referred to with disapproval in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.² In the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā³ the Caraka teacher (Carakācārya) is enumerated among the sacrificial victims at the Puruṣamedha, or human sacrifice. His dedication there to ill-doing is a clear hint of a ritual feud.

1 iii. 3, I.

² iii. 8, 2, 24 (where the reference is to Taittirīya Samhitā vi. 3, 9, 6; 10, 2, or some parallel passage); iv. 1, 2, 19; 2, 3, 15; 4, 1. 10; vi. 2, 2, 1. 10; viii. 1, 3, 7; 7, 1, 14. 24.

3 xxx. 18; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 16, 1. Its occurrence in the latter text

renders improbable von Schroeder's view, Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 188, that Caraka included all the Black Yajurveda schools.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 2, 287, n. 2; 3, 256, 257, 454; Indian Literature, 87; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 212.

Caraka-brāhmaṇa is the name of a work from which Sāyaṇa quotes in his commentary on the Rigveda.¹

1 viii. 66, 10; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 41.

Carācara ('running about'), a term found classed with Sarīsrpa in the Yajurveda Samhitās, must apparently denote some kind of animal.

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 8, 13, 3; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xv. 3; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 12, 10; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxii. 29.

Caru designates a 'kettle' or 'pot' from the Rigveda onwards.¹ It had a lid (apidhāna) and hooks (anka) by which it could be hung over a fire.² It was made of iron or bronze³

1 Rv. i. 7, 6; vii. 104, 2; ix. 52, 3; x. 86, 18; 167, 4; Av. iv. 7, 4; ix. 5, 6; xi. 1, 16; 3, 18; xviii. 4, 16 et seq., etc. It is called pañca-biia, 'with five openings,' in the Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 6,

1, 2; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, v. 6; xxxii. 6; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, i. 4, 4. 9, etc.

² Rv. i. 162, 13; Av. xviii. 4, 53.

³ Satapatha Brāhmana, xiii. 3, 4, 5 Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 271.

(avasmaya). The word is also secondarily used 4 to denote the contents of the pot, the mess of grain which was cooked in it.

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4 Taittirīva Samhitā, i. 8, 10, 1; 1
                                          3, 1, etc. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien,
Aitareva Brāhmana, i. 1; Śatapatha
                                          9. 216.
Brāhmana, i. 7, 4, 7; ii. 5, 3, 4; iii. 2,
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Carman, denoting 'hide' in general, is a common expression from the Rigveda onwards.1 The oxhide was turned to many uses, such as the manufacture of bowstrings, slings, and reins (see Go). It was especially often employed to place above the boards 2 on which the Soma was pressed with the stones.3 It was possibly also used for making skin bags.4 Carmanya denotes leather-work generally in the Aitareya Brāhmana.5

The art of tanning hides $(ml\bar{a})$ was known as early as the Rigveda,6 where also the word for 'tanner' (carmamna) occurs.7 Details of the process are lacking, but the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa8 refers to stretching out a hide with pegs (śankubhih), and the Rigvedaº mentions the wetting of the hide.

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1 Rv. i. 85, 5; 110, 8; 161, 7;
iii. 60, 2; iv. 13, 4, etc.; Av. v. 8, 13;
x. 9, 2; xi. 1, 9, etc.; Taittirīya Sam-
hitā, iii. 1, 7, 1; vi. 1, 9, 2, etc. The
stem carma, neuter (loc., carme), is found
in the Taittiriya Brāhmana, ii. 7, 2, 2.
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² Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 148-150; 181-183.

3 Rv. x. 94, 9; 116, 4.

4 Rv. x. 106, 10, is so taken by Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 228, who compares Odyssey, x. 19.

5 v. 32. Cf. paricarmanya, Sankhāyana Aranyaka, ii. 1.

6 viii. 55, 3 (a late hymn).

7 viii. 5, 38; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 15; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 13, 1. For the form, cf. Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, p. 38, n. 1; p. 249,

8 ii. I, I, 9.

9 i. 85, 5.

Cf. Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 228, 253.

Carṣaṇi, used in the plural, denotes in the Rigveda1 'men' in general or 'people,' conceived either as active beings2 or as cultivators3 in opposition to nomads. The expression 'king of men' (rājā carṣaṇīnām) is frequently found.4 The 'people' are

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3 If derived from krs, 'plough' or
  1 Rv. i. 86, 5; 184, 4; iii. 43, 2;
                                              'till.'
iv. 7, 4; v. 23, 1; vi. 2, 2; x. 180, 3,
                                                4 Rv. iii. 10, 1; v. 39, 4; vi. 30, 5;
                                              viii. 70, 1; x. 139, 1, etc.
  <sup>2</sup> If derived from car, 'move,' which
is probable.
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also mentioned in connexion with war.⁵ In the Atharvaveda⁶ 'animals' (paśu) and 'men' (carṣaṇi) are spoken of together.

For the five carsanayah,7 see Pañca Janāsah.

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37, 8; vi. 31, 1, etc.
 6 xiii. 1, 38.
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⁵ Rv. i. 55, 1; 109, 6; iv. 31, 4; | For the derivation, see Macdonell. Vedic Grammar, 185, and especially 122, 2a (from car, 'move'); Monier Williams, ·7 Rv. v. 86, 2; vii. 15, 2; ix. 101, 9. | Dictionary, s.v. (from kṛṣ, 'plough').

Caṣāla, the mortar-shaped top-piece of the sacrificial post (Yūpa), is mentioned from the Rigveda onwards.1 In one passage of the Satapatha Brāhmana2 it is directed to be made of wheaten dough (gaudhūma).

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1 Rv. i. 162, 6; Taittirīya Samhitā, vi.
3. 4. 2. 7; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxvi. 4,
                                            Cf. Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East,
etc.; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, i. 11, 8, etc. | 26, 168, n. 1; 41, 31, n. 1.
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Cākra is the name of a man, variously styled Revottaras Sthapati Pāṭava Cākra¹ and Revottaras Pāṭava Cākra Sthapati,² who is mentioned in the Satapatha Brāhmana only. there said to have been expelled by the Srnjayas, but to have restored to them their prince Dustarītu despite the opposition of the Kauravya king Balhika Prātipīya.2 He must have been a sage rather than a warrior, as the first passage of the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ shows him in the capacity of a teacher only. Sthapati.

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1 Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, xii. 8, 1, 17.
                                         207; 10, 85, n. 1; Indian Literature, 123;
2 Ibid., xii. 9, 3, 1 et seq.
                                         Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 269
Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 205- et seq., whose version is followed above.
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Cākrāyaṇa, 'descendant of Cakra,' is the patronymic of Usasta or Usasti.1

¹ Brhadāraņyaka Upaniṣad, iii. 5, 1; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, i. 10, 1; 11, 1.

Cāṇdāla. See Candala.

Cākṣuṣa, a word occurring once only in the Atharvaveda, is, according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary, a patronymic (of Suyāman, a personification). Whitney2 treats it as probably a simple adjective ('of sight').

¹ xvi. 7, 7. ² Translation of the Atharvaveda, 800.

Catur-masya, 'four-monthly,' denotes the festival of the Vedic ritual held at the beginning of the three seasons of four months each, into which the Vedic year was artificially divided.1 It is clear that the sacrifices commenced with the beginning of each season,2 and it is certain that the first of them, the Vaiśvadeva, coincided with the Phalguni full moon,3 the second. the Varuna-praghāsas, with the Āṣāḍhī full moon,4 and the third, the Sāka-medha, with the Kārttikī full moon.5 There were, however, two alternative datings: the festivals could also be held in the Caitrī, the Śrāvanī, and Āgrahāyanī (Mārgasīrsī) full moons,6 or in the Vaiśākhī, Bhādrapadī, and Pauṣī full moons.7 Neither of the later datings is found in a Brāhmana text, but each may well have been known early, since the Taittirīya Samhitā⁸ and the Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa⁹ both recognize the full moon in the month Caitra as an alternative to the full moon in the month Phalguna, for the beginning of the year.

Jacobi considers that the commencement of the year with the full moon in the asterism Phalgunī, which is supported by other evidence, 10 indicates that the year at one time began with the winter solstice with the moon in Phalguni, corresponding to the summer solstice when the sun was in Phalgunī. These astronomical conditions, he believes, existed in the time of the Rigveda,11 and prevailed in the fourth millennium B.C. The alternative

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 6, 10, 3; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 4, 9, 5; ii. 2, 2, 2; Śatapatha Brāhmana, i. 6, 3, 36; ii. 5, 2, 48; 6, 4, 1; v. 2, 3, 10; xiii. 2, 5, 2; Kausītaki Brāhmana, v. 1, etc.

² Satapatha Brāhmana, i. 6 3, 36 (cf. xiv. 1, 1, 28); Kausītaki Brāhmana,

3 In the month Phalguna, or February-March.

In the month Aṣāḍha, or June-

That is, in the month Karttika, when the moon is in the asterism Kṛttikā: Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, ii. 6, 3, 13; Kausītaki Brāhmana, v. 1, etc.

6 Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iii. 13, 1; 14, 1. 2; 15, 1. These are the fullmoon days in the months Caitra (March-April), Śrāvaṇa (July-August), and Mārgaśīrṣa (November-December) respectively.

7 Deva's Paddhati on Kātyāyana Srauta Sūtra, pp. 430, 450, 497. These are the full-moon days in the months Vaišākha (April-May), Bhādrapada (August-September), and Pausa (December-January) respectively.

8 vii. 4, 8, 1. 2.

9 v. 9, 8. 11.

10 Indian Antiquary, 23, 156 et seq.; Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 49, 223 et seq.; 50, 72-81.

11 vii. 103, 9; x. 85, 13. Cf. Festgruss an Rudolf von Roth, 68 et seq.

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dates would then indicate periods when the winter solstice coincided with the Caitri or the Vaisakhi full moon. Oldenberg 12 and Thibaut 13 seem clearly right in holding that the coincidence of Phalguni with the beginning of spring.14 which is certain, is fatal to this view, and that there is no difficulty in regarding this date as consistent with the date of the winter solstice in the new moon of Magha, which is given by the Kausitaki Brāhmaņa,15 and which forms the basis of the calculations of the Jyotisa. The full moon in Phalguna would be placed about one month and a half after the winter solstice, or, say, in the first week of February, which date. according to Thibaut, may reasonably be deemed to mark the beginning of a new season in India about 800 B.C. At the same time it must be remembered that the date was necessarily artificial, inasmuch as the year was divided into three seasons, each of four months, and the Indian year does not in fact consist of three equal seasons. The variations of the other datings would then not be unnatural if any school wished to defer its spring festival, the Vaiśvadeva, to the time when spring had really manifested itself. See also Samvatsara.

12 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 630 et seq.; 49, 475, 476; 50, 453-457.

13 Indian Antiquary, 24, 86 et seq.

14 See Taittiriya Brāhmaņa, i. 1, 2, 6. 8; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, xiii. 4, 1, 2-4. So the Phalguni full moon is called 'the mouth of the seasons (rtunam mukham) - e.g., Pancavimsa Brāhmana, xxi. 15, 2; Kāthaka Samhitā, viii. 1; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, i. 6, 9; and the first season is always spring: Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 5, 3, 8-14; 1101-1104.

ii. 1, 3, 1; vii. 2, 4, 26; xi. 2, 7, 32; xii. 8, 2, 34; xiii. 5, 4, 28; Taittiriya Samhitā, ii. 1, 2, 5; Kāthaka Samhitā, xiii. 1. 7, etc. See Weber, Naxatra, 2, 352.

16 xix. 3.

16 Thibaut, Astronomie, Astrologie, und Mathematik, 17. 18.

Cf. Weber, Naxatra, 2, 329 ct seq.; Whitney, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 16, lxxxvi., lxxxvii.; Keith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1909,

Cāndhanāyana is the patronymic of Ānandaja in the Vaṃśa Brāhmana.1

1 Indische Studien, 4, 372, 383.

Cāyamāna is the patronymic in the Rigveda (vi. 27, 5. 8) of Abhyāvartin.

Casa, the 'blue woodpecker' (Coracias indica), is mentioned in the Rigveda, as well as in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Yajurveda.2

1 x. 97, 13. ² Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 4; 15, 9; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 23; xxv. 7. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 92.

Ciccika is a bird mentioned with the equally unknown Vṛṣārava in one hymn of the Rigveda.1 It may perhaps be compared with the Citaka mentioned by Dārila in his commentary on the Kausika Sūtra.2

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 90 ; 1 x. 146, 2. Griffith, Hymns of the Rigveda, 2, 589. 2 xxvi. 20; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 266.

Citra is the name of several persons. (a) The Rigveda¹ contains a Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts') of a prince Citra. The later legend² attributes this panegyric to Sobhari, and describes Citra as king of the rats.

1 viii. 21, 18.

- (b) Citra Gāngyāyani or Gārgyāyaņi is mentioned in the Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad¹ as a contemporary of Āruṇi and Śvetaketu.
- 1 i. 1. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 395; Keith, Śānkhāyana Āranyaka, 16, n. T.
- (c) Citra Gauśrāyaṇi is mentioned as a teacher in the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaņa.1 1 XXIII. 5. Cf. Weber, loc. cit.

Citra-ratha ('having a brilliant car') is the name of two persons.

(a) It designates an Aryan prince, who, with Arna, was defeated by Indra for the Turvasa-Yadus on the Sarayu (perhaps the modern Sarju in Oudh), according to the Rigveda (iv. 30, 18). The locality would accord with the close connexion of Turvasa and Krivi or Pañcala.

² Bṛhaddevatā, vii. 58 et seq., with Macdonell's notes.

(b) Citraratha is also the name of a king for whom the Kāpeyas performed a special kind of sacrifice (dvirātra), with the result, according to the Pañcavimsa Brāhmana, that in the Caitrarathi family only one member was a Ksatra-pati, the rest dependents. Apparently this must mean that the Caitrarathis were distinguished from other families of princes by the fact that the chief of the clan received a markedly higher position than in most cases, in which probably the heads of the family were rather an oligarchy than a monarch and his dependents. See Rājan.

1 xx. 12, 5. Cf. Hopkins, Transactions | Sciences, 15, 52, 53; Weber, Indische of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and | Studien, 1, 32; Indian Literature, 68, n.

Citrā. See Naksatra.

Cilvați is the name of an unknown animal in the Gopatha Brāhmana (i. 2, 7).

Cīpudru designates some substance mentioned in a hymn of the Atharvaveda1 as of use in healing. The commentator Sāyaṇa reads Cīpadru, and explains the word as a kind of tree. This interpretation is supported by the fact that the Kauśika Sūtra² refers to the employment of splinters of Palāśa wood in the ritual application of this hymn.3 Whitney4 suggests that the form of the word should be Cīpuḍu.

- 1 vi. 127, 2. 2 xxvi. 34.
- 8 Av. vi. 127.
- 4. Translation of the Atharvaveda, 376.

Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 350 - 352; Alharvaveda, 62; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 386. The text of Roth and Whitney reads by error Sipudru.

Cumuri is the name of an enemy of Dabhīti, for whom he, along with his friend Dhuni, is mentioned in the Rigveda 1 as having been defeated by Indra. Elsewhere 2 the two are spoken of, along with Sambara, Pipru, and Susna, as having been crushed by Indra, who destroyed their castles. It is impossible to say whether real men or demons are meant, but in favour of

¹ vi. 20, 13; x. 113, 9. In vi. 26, 6, been subdued for Dabhīti in iv. 30, 21; or Dasyus generally are stated to have 2 Rv. vi. 18, 8.

Cumuri alone is mentioned, and Dāsas ii. 13, 9. See also ii. 15, 9; vii. 19, 4.

a man being denoted by Cumuri is the form of the name, which seems not to be Āryan.³

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    Wackernagel, Altindische Grammatik,
    1, xxii.
    Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie,
    3, 275; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology,
    p. 162.
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Cūḍa Bhāgavitti ('descendant of Bhagavitta') is mentioned in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaṇiṣad¹ as a pupil of Madhuka Paingya.

1 vi. 3, 9 (Kāṇva=vi. 3, 17. 18 Mādhyaṃdina). The text of the Kāṇva has, as usual, Cūla.

Cūrņa appears to denote an aromatic powder in the phrase cūrṇa-hasta, used of the Apsarases in the Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad (i. 4).

Cedi is the name of a people who, with their king Kaśu, the Caidya, are mentioned only in a Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts'), occurring at the end of one hymn of the Rigveda, where their generosity is celebrated as unsurpassed. They occur later in the Epic with the Matsyas, and lived in Bandela Khaṇḍa (Bundelkhand).² In Vedic times they were probably situated in much the same locality.

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1 viii. 5, 37-39.

2 Lassen, Indische Alterthumskunde, 12, 688, n. 3; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, Buddha, 402.
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Celaka Śāṇḍilyāyana ('descendant of Śāṇḍilya') is mentioned as a teacher in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (x. 4, 5, 3).

Caikitāneya ('descendant of Cekitāna') is mentioned as a teacher in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa.¹ The Caikitāneyas are also referred to there² in connexion with the Sāman which they worshipped. Brahmadatta Caikitāneya is brought into connexion with the Sāman in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad,³ and Vāsiṣṭha Caikitāneya is known to the Ṣaḍviṃśa⁴ and Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇas.⁵ The word is a patronymic, formed from

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1 i. 37, 7; ii. 5, 2.
2 i. 42, 1.
3 i. 3, 24.
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Caikitāna, according to Śankara,6 but more probably from Cekitāna,7 a name found in the Epic.

6 On Brhadaranyaka Upanisad, | 7 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. loc. cit.

Caikitāyana, 'descendant of Cikitāyana¹ or Cekita,'² is the patronymic of Dālbhya in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad.³

 1 Śańkara on Chāndogya Upaniṣad, | 2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. i. 8, r. 3 i. 8, r.

Caitra is the patronymic of Yajñasena in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā (xxi. 4).

Caitra-rathi. See Citraratha and Satyādhivāka.

Caitriyāyaņa is the patronymic or metronymic of the teacher Yajñasena in the Taittirīya Samhitā (v. 3, 8, 1).

Caidya. See Cedi.

Cailaki, 'descendant of Celaka,' is the patronymic of Jīvala in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (ii. 3, 1, 34).

Cora, 'thief,' is only found in the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka, a late work, in its last book (x. 65). The Vedic terms are Taskara Tāyu, Stena, and Paripanthin.

Cyavatāna Mārutāśva ('descendant of Marutāśva') is apparently the name of a prince in a Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts'), in the Rigveda.¹ Two distinct persons may, however, be meant.

1 v. 33, 9. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3. 155.

Cyavana,¹ Cyavāna,² are variant forms of the name of an ancient Rṣi, or seer. The Rigveda³ represents him as an old decrepit man, to whom the Aśvins restored youth and strength, making him acceptable to his wife, and a husband of maidens.

1 This form is found even in the Nirukta (iv. 19), regularly in all the Vedic texts other than the Rigveda, and in the Epic.

² The Rv. has this form throughout.

³ i. 116, 10; 117, 13; 118, 6; v. 74, 5; vii. 68, 6; 71, 5; x. 39, 4.

The legend is given in another form in the Satapatha Brāhmana, where Cyavana is described as wedding Sukanyā. the daughter of Saryāta. He is there called a Bhrgu or Āngirasa, and is represented as having been rejuvenated by immersion in a pond—the first occurrence of a motive, later very common in Oriental literature. Another legend about Cyavana is apparently alluded to in an obscure hymn of the Rigveda,5 where he seems to be opposed to the Paktha prince Tūrvayāṇa, an Indra worshipper, while Cyavāna seems to have been specially connected with the Asvins. This explanation of the hymn, suggested by Pischel,6 is corroborated by the Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa,7 which relates that Vidanvant, another son of Bhrgu, supported Cyavana against Indra, who was angry with him for sacrificing to the Aśvins; it is also noteworthy that the Asvins appear in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa8 as obtaining a share in the sacrifice on the suggestion of Sukanyā. But a reconciliation of Indra and Cyavana must have taken place, because the Aitareya Brāhmana 9 relates the inauguration of Śāryāta by Cyavana with the great Indra consecration (aindreņa mahābhiṣekeṇa). In the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa 10 Cyavana is mentioned as a seer of Samans or Chants.

4 iv. 1, 5, 1 et seq.

5 x. 61, 1-3.

6 Vedische Studien, 1, 71-77; accepted by Griffith, Hymns of the Rigveda, 2,

7 iii. 121-128; Journal of the American Oriental Society, 11, exlvi; 26, 43 et seq.

8 iv. 1, 5, 13 et seq.

9 viii. 21, 4; Pischel, op. cit., 1, 75.

10 xiii. 5, 12; xix. 3, 6; xiv. 6, 10;

xi. 8, 11. Cf. Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 5, 243, 250-254; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 156; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, pp. 51, 52; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 26, 43 et seq.; Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 56, 57.

CH.

Chaga is the name of the 'goat' in the Taittiriya Samhitā (v. 6, 22, 1). Cf. Aja and Chaga.

Chadis is used once in the Rigveda, and not rarely later, to denote the covering of a wagon or the thatch of a house, or Aitareya Brāhmaņa, i. 29; Śatapatha

1 x. 85, 10 (of Sūryā's bridal car).

² Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 2, 9, 4; 10, 5. 7; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, v. 28; Brāhmaņa, iii. 5, 3, 9, etc.

something analogous to these. Weber³ thinks that in one passage of the Atharvaveda⁴ the word designates a constellation, and Whitney,⁵ who does not decide whether that interpretation is necessary, suggests that the constellation γ , ξ , η , π Aquarii may be meant, since the next verse mentions Vicrtau, which is the constellation λ and ν Scorpionis, and is not far from Aquarius. See also Chardis.

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3 Indische Studien, 17, 208.
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4 iii. 7. 3.

Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 336.

1. Chandas in the Rigveda usually denotes a 'song of praise 'or 'hymn.' The original sense of the word, as derived from the verb chand, 'to please,' was probably 'attractive spell,' 'magic hymn,' which prevailed on the gods. In a very late hymn of the Rigveda,3 as well as in one of the Atharvaveda,4 the word is mentioned in the plural (chandamsi), beside Rc (rcah), Sāman (sāmāni), and Yajus, and seems to retain its original meaning, not improbably with reference to the magical subject-matter of the Atharvaveda. From denoting a (metrical) hymn it comes to mean 'metre' in a very late verse of the Rigveda,5 in which the 'Gāyatrī, the Tristubh, and all (sarvā) the metres (chandāmsi) are mentioned. In the later Samhitās three⁶ or seven⁷ metres are enumerated, and in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa⁸ eight. By the time of the Rigveda Prātiśākhya⁹ the metres were subjected to a detailed examination, though much earlier references are found to the number of syllables in the several metres. 10 Later the word definitely denotes a Vedic text generally, as in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa.11

⁵ Translation of the Atharvaveda, 95.

¹ Rv. x. 85, 8 (an obscure verse); 114, 5; Av. iv. 34, 1; v. 26, 5; vi. 124, 1; xi. 7, 8, etc.

² Cf. Roth in St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

³ Rv. x. 90, 9.

⁴ Av. xi. 7, 24.

⁸ x. 14, 16.

⁶ Av. xviii. 1, 17; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, i. 27, etc.

⁷ Av. viii. 9, 17. 19, etc.

⁸ viii. 3, 3, 6, etc.

⁹ xvi. 1 et seq. Cf. Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, xcv. et seq.

¹⁰ Kāthaka Samhitā, xiv. 4; Jaittirīya Samhitā, vi. 1, 2, 7.

¹¹ xi. 5, 7, 3. So Gobhila Grhya Sütra, iii. 3, 4, 15, etc.

2. Chandas occurs in one passage of the Atharvaveda in the adjectival compound brhac-chandas, which is used of a house, and must mean 'having a large roof.' Bloomfield' accepts the reading as correct, but Whitney3 considers emendation to Chadis necessary.

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3 Translation of the Atharvaveda,
 1 jii, 12, 3.
 2 Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 345:
Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 150.
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Chando-ga, 'metre-singing,' is the term applied to reciters of the Sāmans, no doubt because these chants were sung according to their order in the Chandaarcika of the Samaveda. It is only found in the Satapatha Brāhmaņa,1 and often in the Sitras 2

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1 x. 5, 2, 10.
  <sup>2</sup> Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, ii. 2;
xxii. 4; Śānkhāyana Srauta Sūtra,
x. 8, 33: xiii, 1, etc.
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Cf. Oldenberg, Göttingische Gelehrte Anzeigen, 1908, 720.

Chardis occurs often in the Rigveda,1 and occasionally later,2 denoting a secure dwelling-place. The word appears to be incorrectly written, because the metre shows that the first syllable is always short. Roth³ accordingly suggested that Chadis should be read instead. But Chadis means 'roof,' while Chardis never has that sense. Bartholomae is therefore probably right in suggesting some other form, such as Chadis.

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4 Studien, 1, 47; 2, 58. Cf. Wacker-
                                               nagel, Altindische Grammatik, I, xii.
 <sup>1</sup> i. 48, 15; 114, 5; vi. 15, 3; 46, 9.
12, etc.
  <sup>2</sup> Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 2, 9, 2;
3, 6, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xiii. 19;
                                                312.
xiv. 12.
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n. 2; Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 55.

Chāga, 'goat,' is found in the Rigveda, and not rarely later.2 See Aja and Chaga.

³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Oldenberg, Prolegomena, 477.

⁴x; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, iii. 3, 3, 4; ² Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xix. 89; xxi. 40. v. 1, 3, 14; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 11, 2.

J.

Jagat, 'moving,' is applied sometimes in the Atharvaveda, and later to the domestic animals in particular, as opposed to wild animals (śvapad).1 Occasionally the cow is mentioned separately, when the word jagat covers the rest of the domesticated animals.2

1 Av. viii. 5, 11, etc.

² Av. i. 31, 4; x. 1, 29; xix. 47, 10; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, iii. 59. In the Rv. the sense of animal in general is

usually sufficient; but cf. jagati in i. 157, 5; vi. 72, 4.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 150, n.

Jangida is the name of a healing plant mentioned in the hymns of the Atharvaveda.1 It was used as an amulet against the diseases, or symptoms of disease, Takman, Balasa, Āśarīka, Viśarīka, Pṛṣṭyāmaya,2 fevers and rheumatic pains, Viskandha and Samskandha,3 Jambha, and so on. But it is also regarded as a specific against all diseases, and as the best of healing powers.4 It is said to be produced from the juices (rasa) of ploughing (kṛṣi),5 but this need only mean that it grew in cultivated land, not that it was itself cultivated. What plant the name designates is quite uncertain, for it disappears in the later literature. Caland takes it in the Kausika Sūtra to be the Terminalia arjuneya.

1 ii. 4; xix. 34. 35.

² Av. xix. 34, 10.

3 Av. ii. 4, 1; xix. 34, 1. 5.

4 Av. xix. 34, 9. 7.

5 Av. ii. 4, 5.

⁶ Altindisches Zauberritual, 15, rendering Kauśika Sūtra, viii. 15.

Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 433; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 42; Weber, Indische Studien, 13, 141; Grohmann, ibid., 9, 417; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 65. 66, 390.

Jatū, the 'bat,' occurs in the Atharvaveda,1 and is mentioned as one of the victims at the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in

¹ ix. 2, 22.

² Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 6; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 25. 26. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 86.

Jana, besides meaning 'man' as an individual, with a tendency to the collective sense, commonly denotes a 'people' or 'tribe' in the Rigveda and later. Thus, the 'five tribes' (Panca Janāḥ or Janāsaḥ) are frequently referred to, and in one hymn of the Rigveda¹ the 'people of Yadu' (yādva jana) and the Yadus $(y\bar{a}dv\bar{a}h)$ are synonymous. Again, the king $(r\bar{a}jan)$ is described as 'protector $(gop\bar{a})$ of the people (janasya),'2 and there are other references to king and Jana.3 The people of the Bharatas (bhārata jana) is also mentioned; there is no ground to assume with Hopkins⁵ that Jana in this case means a clan or horde (Grāma), as distinguished from a people.

It is difficult to say exactly how a people was divided. Zimmer argues from a passage in the Rigveda that a people was divided into cantons (Vis), cantons into joint families or clans, or village communities (Grāma, Vrjana), and these again into single families. He thinks that the four divisions are reflected in the passage in question by Jana, Viś, Janman, and Putrāh, or sons, and argues that each village community was originally founded on relationship. But it is very doubtful whether this precise division of the people can be pressed. The division of the Jana into several Viś may be regarded as probable, for it is supported by the evidence of another passage of the Rigveda, which mentions the Viś as a unit of the fighting men, and thus shows that, as in Homeric times and in ancient Germany, relationship was deemed a good principle of military arrangement. But the subdivision of the Vis into several Grāmas is very doubtful. Zimmer⁹ admits that neither Grāma¹⁰

¹ viii. 6, 46. 48.

So Soma is called ² Rv. iii. 43, 5. gopati janasya, ' protector of the people,' Rv. ix. 35, 5.

³ Rv. v. 58, 4.

⁴ Rv. iii. 53, 12. See also Bharata. Cf. also x. 174, 5 = Av. i. 29, 6.

⁵ Religions of India, 26, 27. It is true that the Bharatas are called a gavyan grāmaḥ, 'a horde eager for booty,' in Rv. iii. 33, 11; but Grāma has there merely a general application. See n. 10.

⁶ Altindisches Leben, 159, 160.

⁷ ii. 26, 3.

⁸ x. S4, 4. Viśah may have the same sense in several other passages-iv. 24, 4; v. 61, 1; vi. 26, 1; vii. 79, 2; viii. 12, 29-but it need not necessarily bear this sense. But in x. 91, 2, there is a clear contrast between Vis and

⁹ Op. cit., 161. He also relies on Jana. Rv. v. 53, 11, where the Maruts are divided into śardha, vrāta, and gaņa; but these words are vague.

¹⁰ Rv. iii. 33. II. See n. 5.

nor Vrjana 11 has the special sense of a subdivision of the Vis when used for war, for both words only denote generally an armed host. He finds other designations of the village host in Vrā12 and in Vrāja, 13 but it is sufficient to say that the former passage is of extremely doubtful import,14 and that the latter has no reference to war at all. It is therefore impossible to state in what exact relation the Grama in Vedic times stood to the Vis or to the family (Kula or Gotra). The confusion is increased by the vagueness of the sense of both Grāma and Viś. latter be regarded as a local division, then no doubt the Grama must have been a part of a district; but if a Viś was a unit of relationship, then a Grāma may have contained families of different Vises, or may have sometimes coincided with a Viś, or have contained only a part of a Viś. But in any case the original state of affairs must have been greatly modified by the rise of the system of caste, and the substitution of a hierarchical for a political point of view. elements of the people were represented by the family-either as an individual family inhabiting one home (Kula), and consisting often, no doubt, of a joint family of brothers, or as a patriarchal family of sons who still lived with their father—and by the clan, the later Gotra, which included all those who claimed a common ancestor. The Gotra may be regarded as roughly corresponding to the Latin gens and the Greek γένος, and possibly the Viś may be the equivalent of the curia and φρήτρη, and the Jana of the *tribus* and φῦλον or φύλη. 15 These three divisions may also be seen in the Viś, Zantu, and Daqyu of the Iranian world, where the use of Viś suggests that in the Indian Viś a relationship based on blood rather than locality is meant—and perhaps even in the vicus, pagus, and civitas of the old German polity described in the Germania 16 of Tacitus. The family in some form appears as the third element of the Jana in a passage of the Rigveda, 17 where the house (grha) is

¹¹ Rv. vii. 32, 27; x. 42, 10.

¹² Rv. i. 126, 5 (visyā iva vrāḥ).

¹³ Rv. x. 179, 2=Av. vii. 72, 2. 14 Cf. Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 121,

¹⁵ Cf. Iliad, 2, 362.

equations, for which ef. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 393 et seq. The exact parallelism cannot in any case be pressed.

¹⁷ x. 91, 2, where janam janam and 16 Chap. vii. Zimmer gives other trast must be meant. viśam viśam occur, and where a con-

contrasted with the Jana and the Vis. Possibly, too, another passage 18 contrasts the adhvara, or family sacrifice, with that of the Jana or Viś, rather than, as Zimmer¹⁹ thinks, the village with the two larger units. But it is significant of the particularism of the Vedic Indians that while the king maintained a fire which might be regarded as the sacred fire of the tribe. there is no sure trace 20 of any intermediate cult between that of the king and that of the individual householder. The real elements in the state are the Gotra and the Jana, just as ultimately the gens and tribus, the γένος and φῦλον, are alone important. It may be that Viś sometimes represents in the older texts what later was known as the Gotra. See Vis.

This appears clearly when the constitution of society in the Brāhmaṇa period is considered. The tribe or people still exists, and is presupposed, but the division into Viś disappears. The real division is now the separate castes (Varna), but the numerous sections into which each of them is divided appear to be based in part on the ancient Gotra.

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18 Rv. vii. 82, I.
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Cf. Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature,

158; von Schroeder, Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 32, 33; Jolly, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 50, 512 et seq.

2. Jana Śārkarākṣya ('descendant of Śarkarākṣa') is mentioned as a teacher in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa (x. 6, 1, 1 et seq.) and the Chandogya Upanisad (v. 11, 1; 15, 1). He was a contemporary of Aśvapati Kaikeya, and of Aruna Aupaveśi and his son Uddālaka Āruņi.

Janaka, king of Videha, plays a considerable part in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa and the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad,2 as well as in the Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa and the Kauṣītaki Upanișad. He was a contemporary of Yājñavalkya Vāja-

¹⁹ Altindisches Leben, 435.

²⁰ Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2,

¹ xi. 3, 1, 2; 4, 3, 20; 6, 2, 1 | 3 i. 19, 2 (Journal of the American Seq. 2 iii , 76 (ibid., ² iii. 1, 1; iv. 1, 1; 2, 1; 4, 7; v. 14, 8.

saneya,5 of Śvetaketu Āruņeya, and of other sages.6 He had become famous for his generosity and his interest in the discussion of the nature of Brahman, as ultimate basis of reality, in the life-time of Ajātasatru of Kāsi.7 It is significant that he maintained a close intercourse with the Brahmins of the Kuru-Pañcālas, such as Yājñavalkya and Śvetaketu; for this indicates that the home of the philosophy of the Upanişads was in the Kuru-Pañcāla country rather than in the east. There is a statement in the Satapatha Brāhmana8 that he became a Brahmin (brahmā). This does not, however, signify a change of caste, but merely that in knowledge he became a Brahmin (see Ksatriya). Janaka is occasionally mentioned in later texts: in the Taittirīya Brāhmaņa9 he has already become quite mythical; in the Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra 10 a sapta-rātra or seven nights' rite is ascribed to him.

It is natural to attempt to date Janaka by his being a contemporary of Ajātaśatru, and by identifying the latter with the Ajātasattu of the Pāli texts 11: this would make the end of the sixth century B.C. the approximate date of Janaka.12 But it is very doubtful whether this identification can be supported: Ajātaśatru was king of Kāśi, whereas Ajātasattu was king of Magadha, and his only connexion with Kāśi was through his marriage with the daughter of Pasenadi of Kosala.13 Moreover, the acceptance of this chronology would be difficult to reconcile with the history of the development of thought; for it would make the rise of Buddhism contemporaneous with the Upanisads, whereas it is reasonably certain that the older Upanisads preceded Buddhism.¹⁴ Nor do the Vedic texts know anything of Bimbisāra or Pasenadi, or any of the other princes famed in Buddhist records.

⁵ Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 3, 1, 2; 4.3.20; Brhadāranyaka Upanisad, loc. cit.; Jaiminīya Brāhmana, loc. cit.

⁶ Satapatha Brāhmana, xi. 6, 2, 1 et seq.

⁷ Kausītaki Upanisad, loc. cit.;

Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 1, 1. 8 xi. 6, 2, 10.

⁹ iii. 10, 9, 9.

¹⁰ xvi. 26, 7.

¹¹ Vincent Smith, Early History of India, 26 et seq.

¹² Hoernle, Osteology, 106.

¹³ Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, 3 et

¹⁴ See e.g., von Schroeder, Indiens Literatur and Cultur, 243; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 224; Deussen, Philosophy of the Upanisads, 23 et seq.; Keith, Aitareya Aranyaka, 25, 29.

The identification 15 of Janaka of Videha and the father of Sītā is less open to objection, but it cannot be proved, and is somewhat doubtful. In the Sūtras Janaka appears as an ancient king who knew of a time when wifely honour was less respected than later.16

15 Cf. Weber. Indian Literature, 135: Von Schroeder, op. cit., 189; Macdonell, op. cit., 214.

16 Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 48.

Cf. Muir. Sanskrit Texts, 5, 426 ct seq. : Max Müller, Ancient Sanskrit Literature. 421 et seq.: Von Schroeder. ob. cit.

187-189; Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 175. 231; Oldenberg, Buddha, 31, n., who properly emphasizes the difficulty of attaching much importance to the names of the leaders of the thought of the Upanisads.

Janatā, a word frequently found in the later Samhitās1 and the Brāhmanas,2 denotes the people as a community (cf. Sabhā) or as a religious unit.

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<sup>1</sup> Taittirīva Samhitā, ii. 2, 1, 4; 6, 4;
3, 4, 2; Kāthaka Samhitā, ix. 17; Av.
v. 18, 12, etc.
  <sup>2</sup> Taittirīya Brāhmana, i. 4, 6, 1; | 153, n.
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ii. 3, 1, 3; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, i. 7. 9: iii. 31; v. 9, etc.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 13,

Jana-pada in the Brāhmanas denotes both the 'people,' as opposed to the king, and the 'land' or 'realm.' The 'subjects' are also denoted by the adjectival jānaþada.3

¹ Aitareya Brāhmaņa, viii. 14 (plural); | Satapatha Brāhmana, xiii. 4, 2, 17. ² Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 3, 9, 9;

Brhadāraņyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 1, 20; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 11, 5; viii. 1, 5. 3 Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, xiv. 5, 1, 20.

I. Janam-ejaya ('man-impelling') is the name of a king, a Pārikṣita,¹ famous towards the end of the Brāhmana period. He is mentioned in the Satapatha Brāhmaņa² as owning horses which when wearied were refreshed with sweet drinks, and as a performer of the Asvamedha, or horse sacrifice.3 His capital, according to a Gāthā quoted in the Śatapatha4 and the Aitareya Brāhmaṇas, was Āsandīvant. His brothers Ugrasena, Bhīmasena, and Śrutasena are mentioned as having

VOL. I.

3 xiii. 5, 4, 1-3.

4 xiii. 5, 4, 2. 5 viii. 21.

18

¹ Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 5, 4, 1 et seq.; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vii. 34; viii. 11. 21; Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 8, 27, etc.

by the horse sacrifice purified themselves from sin. The priest who performed the sacrifice for him was Indrota Daivāpi Śaunaka.6 On the other hand the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,7 which also mentions his Aśvamedha, names Tura Kāvaṣeya as his priest. It also contains an obscure tale stating that at one sacrifice of his he did not employ the Kasyapas, but the Bhūtavīras, being, however, induced by the Asitamṛgas to have recourse to the Kasyapas again.8 He was a Kuru prince; see Parikṣit. The Gopatha Brāhmaṇa⁹ tells an absurd tale about him, evidently as of an ancient hero.

- 6 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 5, 4, 1; Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, loc. cit.
 - 7 viii. 21. Cf. iv. 27; vii. 34.
- 8 vii. 27. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 204; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 12, 438, n. 229; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 43, 345, n.
- 9 i. 2, 5.
- Cf. Weber, Indian Literature, 123-125; 134-136; Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 37, 65 et seq. ; 42, 239; Pargiter, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1910, 28 et seq.
- 2. Janam-ejaya is in the Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa¹ the name of a priest who officiated at the snake sacrifice.

1 xxv. 15, 3. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 35.

Jana-śruta ('famed among men') Kāṇḍviya is the name of a pupil of Hrtsvāśaya, mentioned in a Vamśa (list of teachers) in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 40, 2), and of Vārakya, a pupil of Jayanta, referred to in the same Brāhmaṇa (iii. 41, 1; iv. 17, 1). Cf. Jānaśruti.

Jani, Jani.—These words appear to denote 'wife,' usually applying to her in relation to her husband (Pati). The more general sense of 'woman' is doubtful; for when Usas is called a fair Jani,1 'wife' may be meant, and the other passage2 cited for this sense by Delbrück,3 which refers to the begetting of children, seems to demand the sense of 'wives.' Since the words usually appear in the plural,4 it is possible they may

² v. 61, 3.

³ Die indogermanischen Verwandschafts-

⁴ i. 85, 1; iv. 5, 5; 19, 5; vii. 18, 2;

^{26, 3;} ix. 86, 32; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xii. 35; xx. 40. 43, etc. Cf. Rv. x. 43, I. In x. 110, 5, the phrase is patibhyo na janayah, where both plurals may be generic.

refer not to 'wives' proper, but to Hetairai. This is, however, rendered unlikely because the Rigveda⁵ uses the phrase batyur janitvam, denoting 'wifehood to a husband,' as well as the expression janayo na patnīh,6 'like wives (who are) mistresses,'7 besides containing passages in which the word has reference to marriage.8 The singular occurs in the dialogue of Yama and Yami.9

42.

6 i. 62. 10: 186, 7.

7 The distinction of sense was probably this: jani meant 'wife,' as bearing children (from ran, 'beget'), while

5 x, 18, 8, Cf. janitvana in viii, 2, | patnī was 'wife,' as being 'mistress' of the house (feminine of bati, 'lord,' 'husband').

> 8 v. 61, 3. So in x. 40, 10, the word seems certainly to refer to marriage.

9 x. 10, 3,

Janitr¹ and Janitr² are frequent words, in the Rigveda and later, for 'father' and 'mother' regarded as the 'begetter' and the 'bearer' respectively of the child. See Pitr, Matr.

² Rv. iii. 48, 2; 54, 14; Av. vi. 110, ¹ Rv. i. 129, 11; 164, 33; iii. 1, 10; 13; ix. 5, 30, etc. 54, 9, etc.; Av. iv. 1, 7; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 87, etc.

Jantu, besides the general sense of 'man,' has also in a few passages 1 the more restricted sense of 'follower' or 'subject.' The 'followers of Śvaitreya' may be compared with the 'subjects (viśah) of Trnaskanda.'3

3 Rv. i. 172, 3. ² Rv. v. 19, 3. ¹ Rv. 1. 94, 5; x. 140, 4.

Janman appears to have the sense of 'relations' in two Passages of the Rigveda, being used collectively in the second of them.

1 iii. 15, 2; ii. 26, 3 (where janena, | Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 160, and visā, janmanā, putraih, is the series). see Jana and Vis.

Janya has in the Rigveda (iv. 38, 6) and the Atharvaveda (xi. 8, 1) the special sense of 'bridesman.'

Jabala is the name of the mother of an illegitimate son. Satyakāma, in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (iv. 4, 1. 2. 4). 18-2

Jabhya, 'snapper,' denotes in the Atharvaveda¹ an insect destructive to grain.

1 vi. 50, 2. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 237.

Jamad-agni is one of the somewhat mythical sages of the Rigveda, where he is frequently mentioned. In some passages¹ his name occurs in such a way as to indicate that he is the author of the hymn; once² he is thus associated with Viśvāmitra. In other passages³ he is merely referred to, and the Jamadagnis are mentioned once.⁴ In the Atharvaveda,⁵ as well as the Yajurveda Saṃhitās⁶ and the Brāhmaṇas,⁻ he is quite a frequent figure. Here he appears as a friend of Viśvāmitra⁶ and a rival of Vasiṣṭha.⁶ He owed his prosperity to his catūrātra, or 'four-night' ritual, with which his family were also very successful.¹o In the Atharvaveda¹¹ Jamadagni is connected with Atri and Kaṇva, as well as Asita and Vītahavya. He was Adhvaryu priest at the proposed sacrifice of Śunaḥśepa.¹²

Jambha occurs twice in the Atharvaveda as the name of a disease or a demon of disease. In one passage it is said to be cured by the Jangida plant; in the other it is described as samhanuh, 'bringing the jaws together.' Weber argued from

¹ Rv. iii. 62, 18; viii. 101, 8; ix. 62, 24; 65, 25.

² Rv. x. 167, 4.

³ Rv. vii. 96, 3; ix. 97, 51.

⁴ Rv. iii. 53, 15. 16.

<sup>ii. 32, 3 (cf. Taittirīya Āraņyaka,
iv. 36; Mantra Brāhmaņa, ii. 7, 1);
iv. 29, 3; v. 28, 7; vi. 137, 1; xviii. 3,
15. 16.</sup>

⁶ Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 2, 12, 4; iii. 1, 7, 3; 3, 5, 2; v. 2, 10, 5; 4, 11, 3; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, ii. 7, 19; iv. 2, 9; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xvi. 19; xx. 9; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, iii. 62; xiii. 56.

⁷ Pañcavimáa Brāhmana, ix. 4, 14; xiii. 5, 15; xxi. 10, 5-7; xxii. 7, 2; Aitareya Brāhmana, vii. 16; Śatapatha

Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 2, 2, 14; Taittirīya Āraṇyaka, i. 9, 7; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 2, 4; Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, iii. 3, 11; iv. 3, 1, etc.

⁸ Taittirīya Samhitā, iii. 1, 7, 3; v. 4, 11, 3; Pañcavimśa Brāhmana, xiii. 5, 15.

⁹ Taittirīya Samhitā, loc. cit.

¹⁰ Pañcavimsa Brāhmana, xxi. 10, 5-7.

¹¹ ii. 32, 3; vi. 137, 1.

¹² Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vii. 16.

Cf. Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 53, 54; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 319; Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 95.

¹ ii. 4, 2. ² viii. 1, 16. ³ Indische Studien, 13, 142.

the Kausika Sūtra4 that it was a child's ailment, especially 'teething.' Bloomfield considers it to mean 'convulsions,' while Caland thinks it denotes 'tetanus.' Whitney decides for 'lockjaw' or 'convulsions.'

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7 Translation of the Atharvaveda,
 4 xxxii. I.
 5 Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 283.
                                             Cf. Zimmer. Altindisches Leben, 302.
 O Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgen-
ländischen Gesellschaft, 53, 224; Altin-
disches Zauberritual, 103.
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Jambhaka, as the name of a demon, presumably identical with the demon causing Jambha, is mentioned in the Vajasaneyi Samhitā 1 and the Śānkhāyana Āranyaka.2

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Cf. Keith, Śānkhāyana Āranyaka, 67, n. 7.
1 xxx, 16.
2 xii. 25.
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Jayaka Lauhitya ('descendant of Lohita') is mentioned in a Vamśa (list of teachers) of the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 42, 1) as a pupil of Yasasvin Jayanta Lauhitya.

Jayanta is the name of several teachers in the Jaiminīya Upanisad Brāhmana:

(a) Jayanta Pārāśarya ('descendant of Parāśara') is mentioned

as a pupil of Vipaścit in a Vamśa (list of teachers).1

(b) Jayanta Vārakya ('descendant of Varaka') appears in the same Vamsa as a pupil of Kubera Varakya. His grandfather is also mentioned there as a pupil of Kamsa Varakya.

(c) A Jayanta Vārakya, pupil of Suyajña Śāṇḍilya, perhaps identical with the preceding, is found in another Vamsa.2

(d) Jayanta is a name of Yasasvin Lauhitya.3

See also Daksa Jayanta Lauhitya.

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Sanskrit Grammar, 1209d, and Mac-
                                           donell, Vedic Grammar, 191a), but the
                                           Upanisad in which it occurs is also a
 1 iii. 41, 1.
 2 iv. 17, 1.
 3 iii. 42, 1. Not only is the forma-
                                          late one.
tion of the name a late one (cf. Whitney,
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Jara-bodha, a word occurring only once in the Rigveda, is of doubtful meaning. It is held by Ludwig² to be the name of 3 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 103.

¹ i. 27, 10.

a seer. Roth³ regards it as a mere adjective meaning 'attending to the invocation,' which is perhaps the most probable interpretation. Oldenburg,⁴ however, thinks that the word is a proper name, the literal sense being 'alert in old age.'

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3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. the rṣī bodha-pratībodhau of Av. v. 30, Cf. Nirukta, x. 8.
4 Rgveda-Noten, 1, 23. He compares
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Jarāyu is found once in the Atharvaveda¹ in the sense of a 'serpent's skin.' Usually² it denotes the outer covering (chorion) of the embryo, as opposed to the *ulva*, the inner covering (amnion).

Living things are occasionally classified according to their mode of origin. In the Chāndogya Upaniṣad³ they are divided into (a) āṇḍa-ja, 'egg-born'; (b) jīva-ja, 'born alive,' or born from the womb; (c) udbhij-ja, 'propagated by sprouts.' In the Aitareya Āraṇyaka⁴ the division is fourfold: (a) āṇḍa-ja; (b) jāru-ja, that is, jarāyu-ja (found in the Atharvaveda, and needlessly read here by Böhtlingk⁶); (c) udbhij-ja; and (d) sveda-ja, 'sweat-born,' explained as 'insects.'

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<sup>1</sup> 1. 27, 1.

<sup>2</sup> Rv. v. 78, 8; Av. i. 11, 4; vi. 49, 1; ix. 4, 4; Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 5, 6, 3; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, x. 8; xix. 76; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 3; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 1, 11, etc; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iii. 19, 2, etc.
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⁴ ii. 6. ⁵ i. 12, 1.

⁶ See jāru in Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 430, 6.

Cf. Deussen, Philosophy of the Upanishads, 196, 292; Keith, Aitareya Āraņyaka, 235.

1. Jaritr is the regular term in the Rigveda, and occasionally later, for a singer of hymns of praise or worshipper.

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<sup>1</sup> i. 2, 2; 165, 14; ii. 33, 11; iii. 60, | <sup>2</sup> Av. v. 11, 8; xx. 135, 1, etc.
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2. Jaritṛ.—According to Sieg,¹ mention is made in one hymn of the Rigveda² of Jaritṛ, one of the Śārṅgas. That hymn he seeks to bring into connexion with the epic³ tradition

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<sup>1</sup> Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 44 et seq.

<sup>2</sup> x. 142.

Mahābhārata, i. 222; 1 et seq.
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of the Rsi Mandapāla, who wedded Jaritā, a female Śārnga bird—apparently a hen sparrow (catakā)—and had four sons. These being abandoned by him and exposed to the danger of being consumed by a forest fire, prayed to Agni with the hymn Rigveda x. 142. This interpretation is very doubtful, though Sāyaṇa4 appears to have adopted it.

4 On Rv. x. 142, 7, 8.

Jarūtha, mentioned in three passages of the Rigveda,1 appears to denote a demon defeated by Agni.2 Ludwig, however, followed by Griffith,3 sees in him a foe slain in a battle in which Vasistha, the traditional author of the seventh Mandala of the Rigveda, was Purohita, or domestic priest.

1 vii. 1, 7; 9, 6; x. 80, 3.

Jartila, 'wild sesamum,' is mentioned in the Taittirīya Samhitā (v. 4, 3, 2) as an unsuitable sacrificial offering. In the Śatapatha Brāhmana (ix. I, I, 3) sesamum seeds are regarded as combining the qualities of cultivation (viz., edibility) with those of wild growth (because they are produced on unploughed land).

Jarvara was Grhapati or 'householder' at the snake festival described in the Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa.1

1 XXV. 15, 3. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 35.

Jala Jātūkarņya ('descendant of Jātūkarņa'), is mentioned in the Śankhāyana Śrauta Sūtra (xvi. 29, 6) as having obtained the position of Purohita, or domestic priest, of the three peoples or kings of Kāśi, Videha, and Kosala.

Jalāṣa-bheṣaja, 'whose remedy is Jalāṣa,' is an epithet of Rudra in the Rigveda¹ and the Atharvaveda.² The word

² Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Nirukta, vi. 17.

³ Hymns of the Rigveda, 2, 11, n.

^{3,} and jalāṣu as an adjective is found in ² ii. 27, 6. It also occurs in the Rv. ii. 33, 7; viii. 35, 6. Nilarudra Upanisad (a very late work),

Iālāsa occurs in a hymn of the Atharvaveda,3 where it denotes a remedy, perhaps, for a tumour or boil.4 The commentator on this passage and the Kausika Sūtra5 regard Jālāṣa as meaning 'urine,' which seems a probable interpretation.6 But Geldner⁷ thinks that rain-water, conceived as urine, is meant: and the Naighantuka⁸ identifies jalāsa and udaka 'water.'

4 Bloomfield, American Journal of Philology, 11, 321 et seq.; Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 489.

5 xxxi. II.

⁶ Bloomfield, American Journal of Philology, 12, 425 et seq.

7 Vedische Studien, 3, 139, n. 2.

8 i. 12.

Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 323, 324; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, pp. 76, 77; Hopkins, Proceedings of the American Oriental Society,

Jașa is the name of some aquatic animal or fish in the Atharvaveda¹ and the Taittirīya Samhitā.² The commentary on the latter text explains it by makara, probably meaning 'dolphin.' The word also occurs in the Gopatha Brāhmaṇa.3 Cf. Jhasa.

1 xi. 2, 25. There are various readings: jhasa, jakha, jagha.

³ ii. 2, 5.

² v. 5, 13, 1.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 96; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 624.

Jahakā, the 'polecat,' is mentioned as a victim at the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Yajurveda.1 thinks it means a jackal living in holes (vila-vāsī kroṣṭā).

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 18, 1; | saneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 36. Cf. Zimmer, Maitrayanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 17; Vaja- | Altindisches Leben, 86. ² On Taittirīya Samhitā, loc. cit.

Jahnu occurs only in the plural in the legend of Sunahsepa, who is said to have obtained, as Devarāta, both the lordship of the Jahnus and the divine lore of the Gathins. A Jahnava, or descendant of Jahnu, was, according to the Pañcavimśa

¹ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 18 (Jah- ing is different and the sense altered: ทนิกลิmุ cadhipatye daive vede ca Gathinam); Āśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xii. 14; Śāńkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xv. 27 (p. 195, 1. 21, ed. Hillebrandt, where the read- | correct).

Jahnunam cadhitasthire daive vede ca Gāthinah. The two ca's cannot be justified, and the text must be inBrāhmana,2 Viśvāmitra, who is said, by means of a certain catū-rātra or 'four-night' ritual, to have secured the kingdom for the Jahnus in their conflict with the Vrcīvants. He is here described as a king. Again, in the Aitareya Brāhmana,3 Viśvāmitra is addressed as a rāja-putra, 'prince,' and Bharatarṣabha, 'bull of the Bharatas.' It is therefore clear that the Brāhmaṇas, though not the Samhitās, saw in him at once a priest and a prince by origin, though there is no trace whatever of their seeing in him a prince who won Brahmanhood as in the version of the later texts.4

· A Jahnāvī is mentioned twice in the Rigveda,5 being either the wife of Jahnu, or, as Sāyana thinks, the race of Jahnu. The family must clearly once have been a great one, later merged in the Bharatas.

² xxi. 12. Cf. Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 54, who correctly explains the passage which Sāyana misunderstands.

3 vii. 17, 6. 7.

4 Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 1,2 337 et seq.

5 i. 116, 19; iii. 58, 6. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 153.

Jāta Śākāyanya ('descendant of Śāka') is mentioned as a ritual authority and contemporary of Śankha in the Kāṭhaka Samhitā (xxii. 7).

Jāta-rūpa, 'possessing native beauty,' is the name of 'gold' in the later Brāhmanas 1 and the Sūtras.2

¹ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 13 (jātarūpa - maya, 'composed of gold'); Brhadāranyaka Upanisad, vi. 4, 25; Naighantuka, i. 2.

² Rajata-jātarūpe, 'silver and gold,'

Lātyāyana Srauta Sūtra, i. 6, 24. Cf. viii. 1, 3; Kausika Sūtra, x. 16; xiii. 3, etc. ; Sānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iii. 19, 9.

Jāti, which in the Pāli¹ texts is the word denoting 'caste,' does not occur at all in the early Vedic literature; when it is found, as in the Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra,2 it has only the sense of 'family' (for which cf. Kula, Gotra, and Vis). For the influence of the family system on the growth of caste, see Varna. To assume that it was the basis of caste, as does ² xv. 4, 14. So jātīya, xx. 2, 11, etc.

¹ Fick, Die sociale Gliederung, 22, n. 4.

Senart,3 is difficult in face of the late appearance of words for family and of stress on family.4

Les Castes dans l'Inde (1896).
 Fick, op. cit., 3; Oldenberg, Zeit Gesellschaft, 51, 267 et seq.

Jātū-karņya, 'descendant of Jātūkarņa,' is the patronymic of several persons.

- (a) A pupil of Asurayana and Yaska bears this name in a Vamsa (list of teachers) of the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad in the Kānva recension.1 In the Mādhyamdina2 he is a pupil of Bhāradvāja.
- (b) A Kātyāyanī-putra, 'son of Kātyāyanī,' bears this name in the Śānkhāyana Āranyaka.3
- (c) A Jātūkarnya is mentioned in the Kausītaki Brāhmana4 as a contemporary of Alīkayu Vācaspatya and other sages.
- (d) Jātūkarnya is in the Sūtras⁵ frequently a patronymic of teachers whose identity cannot be determined. The same person or different persons may here be meant.
 - 1 ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3.
 - ² ii. 5, 21; iv. 5, 27. 3 viii. 10.

4 xxvi. 5 (Jātukarņya in Lindner's index, 159, is a misprint).

5 Aitareya Āraṇyaka, v. 3, 3; Śāṅkh- 140.

āyana Srauta Sūtra, i. 2, 17; iii. 16, 14; 20, 19; xvi. 29, 6 (Jala); Kātyāyana Srauta Sūtra, iv. 1, 27; xx. 3, 17; xxv. 7, 34, etc.

Cf. Weber, Indian Literature, 138-

Jātū-ṣṭhira occurs in one verse of the Rigveda¹ where Sāyaṇa and Ludwig2 interpret the word as a proper name. Roth³ renders it as an adjective meaning 'naturally powerful.'4

1 ii. 13, 11.

² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 152.

3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. (with a wrong reference, ii. 23, 11).

4 Urkräftig. Grassmann, Wörterbuch, similarly explains the word as 'powerful by nature or birth ' $(j\bar{a}t\bar{u})$.

Jāna, 'descendant of Jana,' is the patronymic of Vṛśa in the Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa¹ and apparently in the Śāṭyāyanaka.²

² In Sāyaṇa on Rv. v. 5. Cf. Bṛhaddevatā, v. 14 et seq., with Macdonell's

notes; Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 64 et seq.

Jānaka, 'descendant of Janaka,' is the patronymic of Kratuvid in some MSS. of the Aitareya Brāhmana. In the Taittirīya Samhitā² the name appears instead as Kratujit Jānaki. Jānaka is also, according to some manuscripts of the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad,3 the patronymic of Ayasthūna, but is here no doubt a misreading of Janaki.

1 vii. 34. 2 ii. 3, 8, 1; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xi. 1. 3 vi. 3, 10 (Kāṇva).

Jānaki, 'descendant of Janaka,' is the patronymic of Kratujit in the Taittirīya Samhitā, of Kratuvid in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,² and of Āyasthūṇa in the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad,³ where he is mentioned as a pupil of Cūda Bhāgavitti, and as teacher of Satyakāma Jābāla.

2 vii. 34. 1 ii. 3, 8, 1; Kāthaka Samhitā, xi. 1. ³ vi. 3, 10 (Kāṇva = vi. 3, 18. 19, Mādhyamdina).

Jānam-tapi, 'descendant of Janamtapa,' is the patronymic of Atyarāti in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (viii. 23).

Jāna-pada. See Janapada.

Jāna-śruti, ' descendant of Jānaśruta,' is the patronymic ot Pautrāyaṇa in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (iv. 1, 1; 2, 1).

Jāna-śruteya, 'descendant of Jānaśruti' or of 'Janaśrutā.' is the patronymic or metronymic of several persons—Upāvi1 or Aupāvi,2 Ulukya,3 Nagarin,4 and Sāyaka.5

³ Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, ¹ Aitareva Brāhmana, i. 25, 115. 5 Ibid. i. 6, 3. ² Satapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 1, 1, 5.7; 4 Ibid., iii. 40, 2. Maitrāyanī Samhitā, i. 4, 5.

Jābāla, 'descendant of Jabāla,' is the metronymic of Mahāśāla¹ and Satyakāma.² Jābāla is also mentioned as a teacher in the Jaiminiya Upanisad Brāhmaņa, which refers to the

² Ibid., xiii. 5, 3, 1; Brhadaranyak i Upanisad, iv. 1, 14; vi. 3, 19; Chan-

¹ Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, x. 3, 3, 1; | dogya Upaniṣad, iv. 4, 1, etc.; Aitareya 6, I, I. 3 iii. 9, 9.

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Jābālas as well. The Jābāla Grhapatis are spoken of in the Kausītaki Brāhmana.5

> 4 iii. 7, 2. ⁵ xxiii. 5. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 395.

Jābālāyana, 'descendant of Jābāla,' is the patronymic of a teacher, a pupil of Mādhyamdināyana, who is mentioned in the second Vamsa (list of teachers) of the Kanva recension of the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad (iv. 6, 2).

Jāmadagniya is the patronymic of two 'descendants of Jamadagni' in the Taittiriya Samhitā. It appears from the Pañcavimsa Brāhmana² that the Aurvas are meant, and that Jamadagni's descendants were ever prosperous.

1 vii. 1, 9, 1. ² xxi, 10, 6. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 12, 251, n.;

Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 54.

Jāmātṛ is a rare word denoting 'son-in-law' in the Rigveda,1 where also occurs the word Vijāmātr, denoting an 'unsatisfactory son-in-law,' as one who does not pay a sufficient price, or one who, having other defects, must purchase a bride. Friendly relations between son-in-law and father-in-law are referred to in the Rigveda.2

1 viii. 2, 20. Vāyu is called the | jāmātr of Tvastr in viii. 26, 21. 22. Cf. Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 517; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 78, 79.

² x. 28, 1. Cf. Bloomfield, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 255.

Jami, a word which appears originally to have meant 'related in blood,' is not rarely used as an epithet of 'sister' (Svasr), and sometimes even denotes 'sister' itself, the emphasis being on the blood-relationship. So it appears in a passage of the Atharvaveda,2 where 'brotherless sisters'

1 Cf. Delbrück, Die indogermanischen | 'sister,' Rv. i. 65, 7; x. 10, 10, etc.; Verwandtschaftsnamen, 463.464. As 'relation,' it occurs, e.g., Rv. i. 31, 10; ix. 65, 1; 89, 4, etc. 75, 3. 4; 100, 11; 124, 6, etc.; as 2 i. 17, 1.

with svasā, i. 123, 5; 185, 5; iii. 1, 11;

(abhrātara iva jāmayaḥ) are referred to. The word is similarly used in the dispute occurring in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa³ as to the precedence of Rākā, or of the wives of the gods, in a certain rite. One party is there described as holding that the sister should be preferred (jāmyai vai pūrva-peyam)—apparently at a ceremonial family meal—to the wife, presumably as being of one blood with the husband, while the wife is not (being anyodaryā, 'of another womb').4 In the neuter5 the word means 'relationship,' like jāmi-tva, which also occurs in the Rigveda.6

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'making relationship,' Av. iv. 19, 1.
                                              Cf. Aitareya Brāhmana, loc. cit.
3 iii. 37.
1 Delbrück, loc. cit.
                                                 6 i. το5, 9; 166, 13; x, 55, 4; 64, 13.
<sup>5</sup> Rv. iii. 54, 9; x. 10, 4; jāmi-kṛt,
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Jāmi-śamsa, the 'imprecation by a sister' or 'relation,' is mentioned in the Atharvaveda, showing that family disputes were not rare. This is also indicated by the word Bhrātrvya, which, while properly meaning 'father's brother's son,' regularly denotes simply 'enemy.'

¹ ii. 10, 1 (=Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 5, 6, 3), and personified in ix. 4, 15. Cf. jāmyāh sapathah, Av. ii. 7, 2; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 362.

Jāmbila, 'hollow of the knee,'1 occurs once in the Maitrāyanī Samhitā.² The word also occurs in the form of Jāmbīla in the Kāthaka Samhitā³ and the Vājasaneyi Samhitā.⁴ Mahīdhara, in his commentary on the latter text, interprets the word as 'knee-pan,' which he says is so named because of its resemblance to the citron, jāmbīra.

2 iii. 15, 3. 4 xxv. 3. 1 Perhaps for jānu-bila. Cf. Mac-3 v. 13, 1. donell, Vedic Grammar, p. 11, n. 4.

Jāyantī-putra, 'son of Jāyantī,' is mentioned in the last Vamsa (list of teachers) in the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad¹ as a pupil of Māṇḍūkāyanīputra.

1 vi. 5, 2 (Kāṇva=vi. 4, 32 Mādhyaṃdina).

Jāyā regularly denotes 'wife,' and, as opposed to Patnī, wife as an object of marital affection, the source of the continuance

of the race.1 So it is used of the wife of the gambler, and of the wife of the Brāhmaṇa in the Rigveda;2 it is also frequently combined with Pati, 'husband,'3 both there and in the later literature.4 Patnī, on the other hand, is used to denote the wife as partner in the sacrifice; when no share in it is assigned to her, she is called Jāyā.6 The distinction is, of course, merely relative; hence one text7 calls Manu's wife Jāyā, another8 Patnī. Later on Jāyā is superseded by Dāra.

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1 Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Ver-
wandtschaftsnamen, 411, 412. Cf. Rv.
i. 105, 2; 124, 7; iii. 53. 4; iv. 3, 2;
18, 3; ix. 82, 4; x. 10, 7; 17, 1; 71, 4,
etc.; Av. iii. 30, 2; vi. 60, 1, etc.
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Jāyānya, Jāyenya, are variant forms of the name of a disease mentioned in the Atharvaveda and the Taittiriya Samhitā. In one passage of the former text3 it is mentioned with jaundice (harimā) and pains in the limbs (anga-bhedo visalpakah). Zimmer4 thinks these are its symptoms, and identifies it with a kind of Yaksma, or disease of the lungs. Bloomfield 5 prefers to identify it with syphilis, in accordance with certain indications in the ritual of the Kauśika Sūtra.6 Roth conjectures 'gout,' but Whitney⁷ leaves the nature of the disease doubtful.

Jāra, 'lover,' has no sinister sense in the early texts1 generally, where the word applies to any lover. But it seems probable that the Jara at the Purusamedha, or human sacrifice,2

² x. 34, 2. 3. 13, and x. 109. ³ Rv. iv. 3, 2; x. 149, 4.

⁴ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii, 23, 1. Cf.

vii. 13, 10; Śatapatha Brāhmana, iv. 6, 7, 9. Cf. Maitrāyanī Samhitā, i. 6, 12.

⁵ Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 9, 2, 14.

⁶ i. I, 4, I3. ⁷ Ibid., i. 1, 4, 16.

⁸ Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iv. 8, 1.

¹ Av. vii. 76, 3-5; xix. 44, 2. ² ii. 3, 5, 2; 5, 6, 5.

⁸ xix. 44, 2.

⁴ Altindisches Leben, 377, following Wise, Hindu System of Medicine, 321, describing Akşata.

³²⁰ et seq.; Hymns of the Atharvaveda,

⁶ xxxii. 11. Cf. also the commentary on Av. vii. 76, and Taittirīya Samhitā,

⁵ American Journal of Philology, 11, Cf. Henry, Lelivrevii del' Atharvavéda, 98.

¹ Rv. i. 66, 8; 117, 18; 134, 3; 152, 4; ix. 32, 5, etc. The word is often used mythologically, as, e.g., jāra usasām, 'lover of the dawns,' vii. 9,

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, I. 308.

² Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 9; Taittirīya Brāhmana, iii. 4, 4, 1.

must be regarded as an illegitimate lover; this sense also appears in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad,³ and Indra is styled the lover of Ahalyā, wife of Gautama.⁴

3 vi. 4, II.

4 Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 65.

Jārat-kārava ('descendant of Jaratkāru') Ārtabhāga ('descendant of Rtabhāga') is the name of a teacher mentioned in the Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka (vii. 20) and the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (iii. 2, 1, in both recensions).

Jāru. See Jarāyu.

Jāla occurs in the Atharvaveda¹ and the Sūtras² in the sense of 'net.' Jālaka is used in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad³ of a reticulated membrane resembling a woven covering.

1 viii. 8, 5. 8 (as used against foes); 2 Kātyāyana Srauta Sūtra, vii. 4, 7, etc. 3 iv. 2, 3.

Jālāṣa. See Jalāṣa, which is read by Sāyaṇa in the Atharvaveda (vi. 57, 2) for Jālāṣa.¹

1 Cf. Bloomfield, American Journal of Philology, 11, 320.

Jāṣkamada is the name of an unknown animal in the Atharvaveda. 1

1 xi. 9, 9. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 88.

Jās-pati occurs once in the Rigveda¹ in the sense of the 'head of the family.' The abstract formed from this word, Jās-patya, apparently denoting 'lordship of children,' is also found there.²

¹ i. 185, 8.

Jāhuṣa is the name in the Rigveda¹ of a protégé of the Aśvins.

i. 116, 10; vii. 71, 5. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 159.

Jāhnava, 'descendant of Jahnu,' is the patronymic of Viśvāmitra in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.¹ This fact is of some importance as disproving Aufrecht's theory² that the Jahnus were the clan of Ajīgarta, the father of Śunaḥśepa.

1 xxi, 12. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, necticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 1, 32; Hopkins, Transactions of the Con2 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, 424.

Jitvan Śailini is the name of a teacher in the Bṛhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, a contemporary of Janaka and Yājñavalkya. He held that speech $(v\bar{a}c)$ was Brahman.

1 iv. 1, 2 (Kāṇva=iv. 1, 5 Mādhyaṃdina, which has Śailina as the patronymic).

Jihvāvant Bādhyoga is the name, in the last Vamsa (list of teachers) of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad,¹ of a teacher, pupil of Asita Vārṣāgaṇa.

1 vi. 5, 3 (Kāṇva=vi. 4, 33 Mādhyamdina).

Jīva-gṛbh, 'seizing alive,' is, according to Roth,¹ the term for a police official in the Rigveda.² But although this sense is rendered possible by the mention of Madhyamaśī, perhaps 'arbitrator,' in the same passage,³ it is neither necessary nor probable.⁴

1 St Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.;

Sichenzig Lieder, 174.

2 x. 97, 11.

3 Rv. x. 97, 12.

4 Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 180.

Jīva-ja. See Jarāyu.

Jīvant appears to denote a certain plant in one passage of the Atharvaveda, where the edition of Roth and Whitney has the unjustified emendation Jīvala 2

¹ xix, 39, 3. Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 960.
2 With this conjectural form, cf.
2 Jīvalā, an epithet of a plant in Av. vi. 59, 3; viii. 2, 6; 7, 6; xix. 39, 3.

Jīvala Cailaki, 'descendant of Celaka,' is mentioned in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ as reproving Takṣan.

1 ii. 3, 1, 31-35. Cf. Lévi, La Doctrine du Sacrifice, 140.

Juhū is the regular name in the Rigveda and later for the tongue-shaped ladle in which butter was offered to the gods.

1 Rv. viii. 44, 5; x. 21, 3; Av. xviii. 4, 5. 6, etc.

Jūrņi, 'firebrand,' is regarded by Zimmer¹ as one of the weapons of the Vedic Indians. But since it is only mentioned in the Rigveda² as a weapon used by demons, its employment in normal war cannot be safely assumed.

1 Altindisches Leben, 301.

2 i. 129, 8. Cf. Nirukta, vi. 4.

Jūrņī is one of the names given to serpents in a hymn of the Atharvaveda (ii. 24, 5), perhaps from their habit of casting their slough. See Ahi.

Jetr. See Srni.

Jaitrāyaṇa Saho-jit is apparently in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā¹ the name of a prince who celebrated the Rājasūya, or 'royal consecration.' Von Schroeder² quotes in support of Jaitrā-vaṇa as a proper name the derivative Jaitrāyaṇi, 'descendant yaṇa as a proper name the derivative Jaitrāyaṇi, 'descendant yaṇa as a proper name the Gaṇa karṇādi, which is of Jaitra,' formed according to the Gaṇa karṇādi, which is referred to by Pāṇini;³ but it should be noted that in the referred to by Pāṇini;³ but it should be noted that in the parallel passage of the Kapiṣṭhala Saṃhitā⁴ the reading is parallel passage of the Kapiṣṭhala Saṃhitā⁴ the reading is different, and no proper personal name appears, the subject different, and no proper personal name appears, the subject different, and no proper personal name appears, the subject different, and no proper personal name appears, the subject different, and server personal name appears, the subject different, and no proper personal name appears, the subject different, and suit every king performing for the verse should be general, and suit every king performing the rite.

¹ xviii. 5.
2 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgen- ländischen Gesellschaft, 49, 168.

VOL. I.

Jaimini does not appear till the Sūtra period. But a Jaiminīya Samhitā of the Sāmaveda is extant, and has been edited and discussed by Caland; 2 and a Jaiminīya Brāhmana. of which a special section is the Jaiminīya Upanisad Brāhmana.3 is known and has formed the subject of several articles by Oertel.4

1 Aśvalāyana Grhya Sūtra, iii. 4; Śāńkhāyana Grhya Sūtra, iv. 10; vi. 6, etc. He appears also as a pupil of Vyāsa, Sāmavidhāna Brāhmaņa, ad fin.; Weber, Indische Studien, 4, 377. Cf. his Indian Literature, 56.

² As part ii. of Hillebrandt's Indische Forschungen, Breslau, 1907. See Oldenberg, Göttingische Gelehrte Anzeigen, 1908, 712 et seq.

3 Edited by Oertel, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 16, 79-260.

4 Journal of the American Oriental Society, 18, 15 et seq.; 19, 97; 23, 325; 26, 176, 306; 28, 81; Actes du onzième Congrès International des Orientalistes, 1, 225; Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 155 et sea.

Jaivantāyana, 'descendant of Jīvanta,' is mentioned in the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad1 as a teacher, with Saunaka and Raibhya, of Rauhināyana.

1 iv. 5, 26 (Mādhyamdina). The name is recognised by Pāṇini, iv. 1, 103.

Jaivala or Jaivali, 'descendant of Jīvala,' is the patronymic of Pravāhaņa in the Brhadāraņyaka1 and Chāndogya Upanișads.² Jaivali, the king, in the Jaiminīya Upanișad Brāhmaṇa³ is the same person.

1 vi. 2, 1 (Kāņva=vi. 1, 1 Mādhyamdina), where the form is Jaivala.

² i. 8, 1. 2. 8; v. 3, 1. ³ i. 38, 4.

Jñātr occurs in two passages of the Atharvaveda 1 and one of the Śānkhāyana Āraṇyaka² with a somewhat obscure sense. Zimmer³ conjectures not unnaturally that the word is a technical term taken from law, meaning 'witness.' reference is, perhaps, to a custom of carrying on transactions of business before witnesses as practised in other primitive societies.4 Roth⁵ suggests that the word has the sense of

¹ vi. 32, 3; viii. 8, 21. ² xii. 14. Cf. Keith, Śāńkhāyana Āranyaka, 66, n. 4.

³ Altindisches Leben, 181.

In Manu, viii. 57, the word is a various reading for sāksin, 'witness.' Cf. Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 140.

⁵ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

'surety.' But Bloomfield6 and Whitney7 ignore these interpretations.

6 Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 475.

7 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 306.

Jñāti (masc.), a word which originally seems to have meant 'acquaintance,'1 denotes in the Rigveda2 and later3 a 'relation,' apparently one who was connected by blood on the father's side, though the passages do not necessarily require the limitation. But this sense follows naturally enough from the patriarchal basis of Vedic society.4

1 Being in all probability derived from jna, 'know,' not from jan, 'beget,' as would at first sight seem more likely on account of the sense. Cf. the St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

² vii. 55, 5, seems to refer to the members of the joint family sleeping in the paternal house; x. 66, 14; 85, 28 (the kinsmen of the bride are meant); 117, 9 (perhaps 'brother and sister' are meant by jñātī here, but 'kinsfolk' will do; cf. Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 5, 432).

3 Av. xii. 5, 44 (where Whitney in

his Translation renders the word by 'acquaintances,' which seems too vague and feeble); Taittirīya Brāhmana, i. 6, 5, 2; Satapatha Brāhmana, i. 6, 4, 3 (jñātibhyām vā sakhibhyām vā, where 'relations' are contrasted with 'friends' or 'companions'); ii. 2, 2, 20; 5, 2, 20; xi. 3, 3, 7, etc.

4 For the transition from the etymological meaning, cf. γνωτός, γνωτή, which in Homer designate 'brother' and 'sister'; St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Jyā is the regular word for 'bowstring' in the Rigveda1 and later.² The making of bowstrings was a special craft, as is shown by the occurrence of the Jyā-kāra, or 'maker of bowstrings,' among the victims at the Purusamedha, or human sacrifice, in the Yajurveda.3 The bowstring consisted of a thong of ox-hide.4 It was not usually kept taut,5 but was specially tightened when the bow was to be used. The sound of the bowstring $(jy\bar{a}$ -ghoṣa) is referred to in the Atharvaveda. Cf. Artnī.

1 iv. 27, 3; vi. 75, 3; x. 51, 6, etc. ² Av. i. 1, 3; v. 13, 6; vi. 42, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvi. 9; xxix. 51, etc.

³ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 7; Taittirîya Brāhmana, iii. 4, 3, 1.

4 Rv. vi. 75, 3; Av. i. 1, 3. In the Epic the bowstring is made of hemp (maurvi); Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 271.

5 Av. vi. 42, I.

6 Rv. x. 166, 3.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 298

Jyākā means 'bowstring,' with a contemptuous sense, in the Rigveda,¹ and in the simple sense in the Atharvaveda.²

1 x. 133, 1, where anyakeṣāṃ jyākāḥ is unmistakably contemptuous. Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, p. 137.
2 i. 2, 2.

Jyā-pāśa means 'bowstring' in the Atharvaveda (xi. 10, 22).

Jyā-hroḍa occurs in the description of the arms of the Vrātya in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa,¹ and is also mentioned in the Sūtras.² The sense is somewhat obscure, for one Sūtra describes it as a 'bow not meant for use' (ayogyaṃ dhanus),³ while the other speaks of it as a 'bow without an arrow' (dhanuṣka aniṣu).⁴ Some sort of a bow, therefore, seems to be meant.

1 xvii. 1, 14 (spelt hnoda in text, hnoda in comm.).

² Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xxii. 4, 11 (spelt -hroda); Lātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, viii. 6, 8 (spelt -hnoda: the editor notes that the Drāhyāyana Sūtra has the same reading).

3 Kātyāyana, loc. cit.

4 Lātyāyana, loc. cit.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 38; Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 32; Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 33, 52.

Jyestha, ordinarily meaning 'greatest,' has further the specific sense of 'eldest' brother in the Rigveda.² It also means the eldest among sons, which is another side of the same sense.³

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! With changed accent, jyestha. Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, p. 83, 14.
2 iv. 33, 5; x. 11, 2.
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Jyeṣṭha-ghnī, 'slaying the eldest,' is the name of a Nakṣatra, or lunar mansion, usually called Jyeṣṭhā, in the Atharvaveda¹ and the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa.² It is Antares or Cor Scipionis.

Jyeşthā. See Naksatra.

³ Av. xii. 2, 35; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vii. 17; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, xi. 5, 3, 8, and cf. Jyaişthineya.

¹ vi. 110, 2. *Cf.* vi. 112, 1.
² i. 5, 2, 8. *Cf.* Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 361.

Jyaisthineya denotes, in combination with Jyestha, the eldest,' a 'son of the father's first wife' (jyesthā), in the Brāhmaṇas.¹

1 Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1, 8, 1 (opposed to kaniṣṭha and kāniṣṭhineya); Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1, 2; xx. 5, 2.

Jyotisa, 'astronomy.' It is important to note that no reference to any work on astronomy occurs in the Samhitās or Brāhmanas. The text which claims to represent the astronomical science of the Veda has been edited by Weber,¹ and has frequently been discussed since.² Its date is unknown, but is undoubtedly late, as is shown alike by the contents and form of the work.

1 Ueber den Vedakalender namens 2 See references in Thibaut, Astronomie, Astrologie und Mathematik, 20, 29.

Jyotişam (1862).

Jvālāyana, 'descendant of Jvāla,' is the name of a man, a pupil of Gauṣūkti, mentioned in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iv. 16, 1), in a list of teachers.

JH.

Jhaṣa is mentioned in the story of Manu told in the Śata-patha Brāhmaṇa, where it means a 'great fish' (mahā-matsya) according to the commentator. Eggeling suggests that a horned fish is meant, because in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā the horned fish is meant, because in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā the horned fish is meant, because in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā the horned fish is represented as a cow, and this Iḍā, or personified libation, is represented as a cow, and this may have brought in the idea of a horned fish in the later form of an old legend. But cf. Jaṣa.

¹ i. 8, 1, 4.

² Sacred Books of the East, 12, 217, n. 3; 26, xxxi.

³ i. 7, 1; ii. 6, 7.

T.

Takavāna appears to be a patronymic from Taku, and to be the name of a seer in the Rigveda,2 presumably a descendant of Taku Kakṣīvant, for his name occurs in a group of hymns composed by the Kākṣīvatas.3

1 Cf. Bhrgavāņa, from Bhrgu; Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. Taku, as an adjective (?), occurs in Rigveda, ix. 97, 52.

² i. 120, 6.

Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 221.

Cf. Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 92; Ludwig, Über Methode bei Interpretation des Rgveda, 47.

Takman is a disease repeatedly mentioned in the Atharvaveda, but later not known under this name. It is the subject of five hymns of the Atharvaveda, and is often mentioned elsewhere.2 Weber3 first identified it with 'fever,' and Grohmann4 showed that all the symptoms pointed to that ailment.⁵ Reference is made to the alternate hot and shivering fits of the patient,6 to the yellow colour of the jaundice which accompanies the fever,7 and to its peculiar periodicity. The words used to describe its varieties are anye-dyuh,8 ubhaya-dyuh,9 trtīyaka,10 vi-trtīya,11 and sadam-di,12 the exact sense of most of which terms is somewhat uncertain. It is agreed 13 that the first epithet designates the fever known as quotidianus, which recurs each day at the same hour, though the word is curious (lit.

1 i. 25; v. 22; vi. 20; vii. 116; xix. 39 (cf. v. 4).

² Av., iv. 9, 8; v. 4, 1. 9; 30, 16; ix. 8, 6; xi. 2, 22. 26, etc.

3 Indische Studien, 4, 119; Roth, Zur Litteratur und Geschichte des Weda, 39, had, from the use of Kustha as a remedy, regarded it as denoting 'leprosy,' and was followed by Pictet, Kuhn's Zeitschrift, 5. 337. Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 4, 280, thought 'consumption' was meant.

4 Indische Studien, 9, 381 et seq.

⁵ See also Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 451 et seq.; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 379-385, and compare the jvara (a non-Vedic word) of the classical

medicine, Wise, Hindu System of Medicine, 219 et seq.; Jolly, Medicin, 70-72. Dārila and Kesava, the commentators on the Kausika Sūtra, everywhere equate takman and jvara.

⁶ Av. i. 25, 2-4; v. 22, 2. 7. 10; vi. 20, 3; vii. 116, 1.

⁷ Av. i. 25, 2; v. 22, 2; vi. 20, 3.

8 Av. i. 25, 4; vii. 116, 2. 9 Ibid.

10 Av. i. 25, 4; v. 22, 13; xix. 39,

11 Av. v. 22, 13.

12 Av. v. 22, 13; xix. 39, 10.

13 Grohmann, op. cit., 387; Zimmer, op. cit., 382; Bloomfield, op. cit., 274.

'on the other-i.e., next, day'). The ubhaya-dyuh ('on both days') variety appears to mean a disease recurring for two successive days, the third being free; this corresponds to the rhythmus quartanus complicatus. 14 But Sāyaṇa considers that it means a fever recurring on the third day, the 'tertian.' The trtīyaka, however, must be the 'tertian' fever, 15 though Zimmer 16 suggests that it may mean a fever which is fatal at the third paroxysm. Grohmann 17 regards the vi-tṛtīyaka as equivalent to the tertiana duplicata, a common form in southern countries, in which the fever occurs daily, but with a correspondence in point of time or severity of attack on alternate days. Bloomfield 18 suggests that it is identical with the ubhaya-dyuh variety. The sadam-di 19 type appears to be the kind later known as samtata-jvara ('continuous fever'), in which there are attacks of several days' duration, with an interval followed by a fresh period of attack. Fever occurred at different seasons, in the autumn (śārada), in the hot weather (graisma), in the rains (vārsika),20 but was especially prevalent in the first, as is indicated by the epithet viśva-śārada, 'occurring every autumn.'21

The disease is said to arise when Agni enters the waters.²² From this Weber²³ deduced that it was considered to be the result of a chill supervening on heat, or the influence of heat on marshy land. Grohmann²⁴ preferred to see in this connexion of the origin of the disease with Agni's entering the waters 25 an allusion to the fact that fever arises in the rainy season, the time when Agni, as lightning, descends to earth with the rain. Zimmer, 26 who accepts this view, further refers to the prevalence

14 Grohmann, 388; Zimmer, 382; Bloomfield, 274. It may conceivably be the form styled Caturthaka Viparyaya (Wise, op. cit., 232), in which the paroxysm occurs every fourth day, and lasts for two days.

15 Sāyana on Av. i. 25, 4; Bloomfield, 451. It is the jvara triiyaka of

Suśruta (2, 404, 7). 16 Op. cit., 383, quoting Hügel, Kashmir, 1, 133.

17 Op. cit., 388.

18 Op. cit., 451. 19 Of doubtful derivation: either

'always cutting' (cf. Sāyaņa on Av. xix. 39, 10), or 'always fastening upon' (Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.), or 'belonging to every day'=sadamdina (Zimmer, 383, n.; Bloomfield,

452). 20 Av. v. 22, 13.

21 Av. ix. 8, 6; xix. 34, 10.

22 Av. I. 25, I.

23 Indische Studien, 4, 119.

23 Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 92.

26 Of a cit., 384.

of fever in the Terai, and interprets vanya, an epithet of fever found in the Atharvaveda,27 as meaning 'sprung from the forest,' pointing out that fever is mentioned as prevalent among the Mūjavants and Mahāvṛṣas, two mountain tribes of the western Himālaya.28 There is no trace of fever having been observed to be caused by the bite of the anopheles mosquito, which breeds in stagnant water: this theory has without reason been held to be known to classical Indian medicine.29

Among the symptoms of Takman, or among complications accompanying it, are mentioned 'itch' (Pāman), 'headache' (śīrṣa-śoka),30 'cough' (Kāsikā), and 'consumption,' or perhaps some form of itch (Balāsa).

It is perhaps significant that the Takman does not appear until the Atharvaveda. It is quite possible that the Vedic Āryans, when first settled in India, did not know the disease, which would take some generations to become endemic and recognized as dangerous. What remedies they used against it is quite uncertain, for the Atharvaveda mentions only spells and the Kustha, which can hardly have been an effective remedy, though still used in later times. Fever must, even in the Atharvan period, have claimed many victims, or it would not be mentioned so prominently. 27 Av. vi. 20, 4.

30 Av. xix. 39, 10.

For the present position of the disease in India, cf. the Report of the Simla Conference of 1909.

Takvan, Takvarī, seem in the Rigveda to denote a 'swiftflying bird.' Sāyaṇa³ explains Takvan as a swift steed.

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<sup>1</sup> Rv. i. 66, 2. Cf. i. 134, 5, and Tsārin.
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Takṣaka Vaiśāleya ('descendant of Viśālā') is a mythical figure, mentioned as the son of Virāj in the Atharvaveda,1 and as Brāhmaṇācchaṃsin priest at the snake sacrifice in the

²⁸ Av. v. 22, 5.

²⁹ Jolly, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1906, 222.

² Ibid., i. 151, 5; x. 91, 2. But in both places the word may be adjectival.

¹ vii. 10, 29. ² xxv. 15, 3. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 35.

Takṣan, 'carpenter,' is mentioned in the Rigveda and often later.2 He was employed to do all sorts of work in wood, such as the making of chariots (Ratha) and wagons (Anas). Carved work of a finer type seems also to have fallen to his lot.3 The axe (kuliśa,4 paraśu5) is mentioned as one of his tools, and perhaps the Bhurij, a word which is, however, uncertain in sense. In one passage of the Rigveda⁶ reference seems to be made to the pains of the carpenter in bending over his work. That the carpenters were a low caste, or formed a separate class of the people, is certainly not true of Vedic times.7

1 ix. 112. I.

² Av. x. 6, 3; Kāthaka Samhitā, xii. 10; xviii. 13; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 9, 5; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvi. 27; xxx. 6; Taittirīya Brāhmana, iii. 4, 2, 1; Satapatha Brāhmana, i. 1, 3, 12; iii. 6, 4, 4, etc.

³ Rv. x. 86, 5; Av. xix. 49, 8. Cf.

Rv. i. 161, 9; iii. 60, 2.

4 Rv. iii. 2, 1.

5 Kāthaka Samhitā, xii. 10.

6 Rv. i. 105, 18. Cf. Roth, Nirukta, Erläuterungen, 67; Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 100.

7 Fick, Die sociale Gliederung, 210,

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 245,

2. Takṣan is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ as a teacher whose view of a certain formula was not accepted by Jīvala Cailaki.

1 ii. 3, 1, 31-35. Cf. Lévi, La Doctrine du Sacrifice, 140.

3. Taksan. See Brbu.

Tandula, 'grain,' especially 'rice grain,' is mentioned very often in the Atharvaveda and later, but not in the Rigveda. This accords with the fact that rice cultivation seems hardly known in the Rigveda.3 Husked (karna) and unhusked (akarna) rice is referred to in the Taittirīya Samhitā.4

1 x. 9, 26; xi. 1, 18; xii. 3, 18.

29. 30. ² Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, ii. 6, 6; Kāthaka Samhitā, x. 1, etc.; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 4, 3; ii. 5, 3, 4; v. 2, 3, 2; vi. 6, 1, 8, etc.; syāmāka-tandula, 'millet grain, ibid., x. 6, 3, 2; Chāndogya Upanișad, iii. 14, 3; apāmārga-taņdula, grain of the Achyranthes aspera, v. 2,

3 Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 239. 4, 15, etc.

4 i. 8, 9, 3. See Pischel, Vedische See Vrīhi. Studien, 1, 190.

Tata, 'dada,' is the pet name for 'father' in the Rigveda1 and later.2 Cf. Tata and Pitr.

1 viii. 91, 6; ix. 112, 3.

2 Av. v. 24, 16; Taittirīya Samhitā, iii. 2, 5, 5; Taittirīya Brāhmana, i. 6, 9, 7; in the vocative as a form of address, Av. viii. 4, 77; Aitareya Brāhmana, v. 14; vii. 15; Aitareya Āranyaka, i. 3, 3.

Cf. Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 449.

Tatāmaha, 'grandfather,' is found in the Atharvaveda.1

1 v. 24, 17; viii. 4, 76. It seems | be an analogical formation following to mean literally 'great father,' and to | pitāmaha; Delbrück, op. cit., 473, 474.

Tanaya, n., denotes 'offspring,' 'descendants' in the Rigveda,1 where also it is often used adjectivally with Toka.2 There seems no ground for the view3 that toka means 'sons,' 'children,' and tanaya 'grandchildren.'

¹ i. 96, 4; 183, 3; 184, 5; ii. 23, 19; vii. 1, 21, etc.; tokam ca tanayam ca, i. 92, 13; ix. 74, 5. Cf. vi. 25, 4; 31, 1; 66, 8; and i. 31, 12, as explained by Pischel, Vedische Studien, 3, 193.

² Rv. i. 64, 14; 114, 6; 147, 1; 189, 2; ii. 30, 5, etc.; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, ii. 7.

3 Nirukta, x. 7; xii. 6.

Cf. St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. Tan, tana, and tanas, have the same sense as Tanaya. See Rv. vi. 46, 12; 49, 13; vii. 104, 10; viii. 68, 12, etc. (tan); viii. 25, 2 (tana); v. 70, 4 (tanas).

Tanti occurs in one passage of the Rigveda, where Roth renders the plural of the word by 'files' of calves. But it seems rather to have the sense which it has in the later literature, of 'cords,' here used to fasten the calves.

1 vi. 24, 4.

² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Tantu appears properly to mean 'thread,' and in particular the 'warp' of a piece of weaving, as opposed to 0tu, the 'woof.' Both senses are found in the Atharvaveda. In the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa² the 'warp' is called anuchāda, the 'woof' paryāsa, the tantavah being the 'threads.' In the Taittirīya Samhitā,3

1 xiv. 2, 51 (opposed to otu); xv. 3, 6 (the prancal and tiryancal threads or cords of the throne of the Vrātya [Asandi]).

² iii. 1, 2, 18; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 26, 8, 9. 3 vi. 1, 1, 4.

on the other hand, the 'warp' is prācīna-tāna, the 'woof' otu. The threads or cords of the throne (Paryanka) are referred to in the Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad.4

In the Rigveda the word is used only metaphorically, and this is its most frequent use even in the Brāhmaṇas.⁵ See also Vāṇa.

4 i. 5; Keith, Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka, 20, n. 2.

5 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. It Brhadāraņyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 1, 23.

is applied to the filaments of plants in Rv. x. 134, 5; to the spider's web in Brhadāranyaka Upanisad, ii. 1, 23.

Tantra means, like Tantu, the 'warp' of a piece of weaving, or more generally the 'web' itself. It is found in the Rigveda¹ and later.²

1 x. 71, 9.
 2 Av. x. 7, 42; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa,
 5, 5, 3; Pañcavimśa Brāhmaņa,

x. 5; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiv. 2, 2,

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 254.

Tapas, Tapasya. See Māsa.

Tapo-nitya ('constant in penance') Pauru-śiṣṭi ('descendant of Puruśiṣṭa') is the name of a teacher in the Taittirīya Upaniṣad (i. 9, 1) who believed in the value of penance (tapas).

Tayādara is the name of an animal only mentioned in the adjectival form tāyādara along with Parasvant, 'wild ass' (?) in the Atharvaveda.¹

1 vi. 72, 2. Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 335.

Tarakṣu, the 'hyæna,' is mentioned in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Yajurveda.¹

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 19, 1, where Sāyana explains the animal to be 'a kind of tiger with an ass's appearance' (vyāghra-višeso gardabhā-

kārah); Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii, 14, 21; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 40. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 81. Taranta appears, along with Purumīḍha, as a patron of Śyāvāśva in the Rigveda.¹ In the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa² and other Brāhmaṇas³ he, together with Purumīḍha, is described as receiving gifts from Dhvasra⁴ and Puruṣanti; but since the receipt of gifts was forbidden to Kṣatriyas, they for the nonce became Ṣṣis, and composed a passage in honour of the donors.⁴ He, like Purumīḍha, was a Vaidadaśvi, or son of Vidadaśva.⁵

Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 50 et seq.; 62, 63; Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 232, n. 1; Rgveda-Noten, 1, 353, 354, where he points out that the Brāhmaṇa tradition, and that of the Brhaddevatā (v. 50-81, with Macdonell's notes), are not to be accepted as real explanations of the Rigveda.

Taru, the usual term for 'tree' in classical Sanskrit, never occurs in Vedic literature, except perhaps in one passage of the Rigveda, where Sāyaṇa finds it, and where it can be so translated. But the form (tarubhih) is probably to be interpreted otherwise.²

Tarukṣa is the name of a man in the Rigveda who is mentioned along with Balbūtha, the Dāsa, in a Dāna-stuti, or 'Praise of Gifts.'

1 viii. 46, 32. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 391; Zimmer, Altindisches

Tarku, 'spindle,' is known only in Vedic literature from the mention of it in Yāska's Nirukta (ii. 1) as an example of the transposition of letters, the word being derived, according to him, from the root *kart*, 'to spin.'

¹ v. 61, 10.

² xiii. 7, 12.

Jaiminiya Brāhmana, iii. 139; Śāṭyāyanaka apud Sāyana on Rv. ix. 58, 3
 Sāmaveda, ii. 410.

⁴ Rv. ix. 58, 3.

⁵ Cf. Rv. v. 61, 10; notes 2 and 3. This is merely a misunderstanding of the Rv. Cf. Oertel, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 18, 39; Sieg,

¹ v. 44, 5.
2 Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., cites tarobhih in Rv. ii. 39, 3, as

a parallel, and so Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 341.

Tarda, 'borer,' occurs in a hymn of the Atharvaveda¹ enumerating insects that injure grain. Whitney² suggests that a kind of mouse or rat may be meant. Roth³ thought a bird was denoted.

1 vi. 50, 1. 2.
2 Translation of the Atharvaveda, Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 485.

Tardman in the Λtharvaveda¹ applies to the hole in the yoke (Yuga). In the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa² it designates a hole in a skin.

1 xiv. 1, 40. 2 iii. 2, 1, 2; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 26, 26, n. 1.

Tarya is, according to Sāyaṇa, the name of a man in one passage of the Rigveda.¹ But the verse is hopelessly obscure.²

¹ v, 44, 12. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 158, 159. ² Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 342.

Talāśa is the name of a tree in the Atharvaveda. Whitney suggests that it may be the same as tālīśa (Flacourtia cataphracta).

vi. 15, 3.

2 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 291.

Cf. Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 62.

Talpa is the regular term for 'bed' or 'couch' from the Rigveda and the Atharvaveda¹ onwards.² One made of Udumbara wood is mentioned in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa.³ The violation of the bed of a Guru, or teacher, is already mentioned in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad,⁴ while the adjective talpya, 'born in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad,⁴ while the adjective talpya, 'born in the nuptial couch,' denotes 'legitimate' in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.⁵

1 Rv. vii. 55, 8; Av. v. 17, 12; xiv. 2, 31. 41. 3 i. 2, 6, 5. 4 v. 10, 9. 5 xiii. 1, 6, 2. Cf. Zimmer, Altin-

disches Leben, 154.

² Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 2, 6, 4; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 2, 5, 3; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xxiii. 4, 2; xxv. 1, 10.

Talava in the list of victims at the Purusamedha, or human sacrifice, in the Yajurveda, denotes a 'musician' of some kind.

¹ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 20; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 15, 1. Weber, Indische Streifen, 1, 83, n. 15.

Tastr is found in the Rigveda 1 in the sense of 'carpenter,' like Taksan, which is from the same root taks, 'to fashion.'

1 i. 61, 4; 105, 18; 130, 4; iii. 38, 1; vii. 32, 20; x. 93, 12; 119, 5. Cf. Nirukta, v. 21.

Tasara denotes the weaver's 'shuttle' in the Rigveda and the Yajurveda Samhitās.2

1 x. 130, 2. ² Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 83; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ili. 11, 9; Kāthaka

Samhitā, xxxviii. 3; Taittirīya Brāhmana, ii. 6, 4, 2.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 254.

Taskara occurs in the Rigveda 1 and frequently later, 2 denoting 'thief' or 'robber.' It appears to be practically synonymous with Stena, in connexion with which it is often mentioned.3 The Stena and the Taskara are contrasted in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā4 with the Malimlu, who is a burglar or house-breaker, while they are highwaymen, or, as the Rigveda 5 puts it, 'men who haunt the woods and risk their lives '(tanū-tyajā vanar-gū). In another passage of the Rigveda,6 however, the dog is told to bark at the Taskara or the Stena, which clearly points to an attempt at house-breaking. The thief goes about at night,7 and knows the paths8 on which he attacks his victim. passage of the Rigveda 9 the use of cords is mentioned, but whether to bind the thieves when captured, or to bind the

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1 i. 191, 5; vi. 27, 3; vii. 55, 3;
viii. 29, 6.
  <sup>2</sup> Av. iv. 3, 2; xix. 47, 7; 50, 5;
Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xi. 77. 78; xii, 62;
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xvi. 21, etc; Nirukta, iii. 14. ³ Rv. vii. 55, 3; Av. xix. 47, 7; 50, 5; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xi. 79; xvi. 21, etc.

⁴ xi. 79 (the Malimlu is janeşu, 'among

men'; the others vane, 'in the forest'). Cf. for the Malimlu, Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 3, 2, 6; Atharvaveda, xix. 49, 10.

⁵ x. 4, 6. 6 vii. 55, 3. 7 Rv. i. 191, 5. 8 Rv. viii. 29, 6. ⁹ x. 4, 6.

victim, is not clear. 10 The Atharvaveda 11 refers to the Stena and the Taskara as cattle and horse thieves 12

Tavu was another name for thief, perhaps of a less distinguished and more domestic character than the highwayman, for though he is referred to as a cattle-thief. 13 he is also alluded to as a stealer of clothes (vastra-mathi) 14 and as a debtor.15 In one passage the Tāvus are said to disappear at the coming of dawn (which is elsewhere called vāvavad-dvesas. 'driving away hostile beings,' and rta-ba, 'guardian of order'), like the stars of heaven (naksatra).16

In the Satarudriva litany of the Vajasanevi Samhita 17 Rudra is called lord of assailers (ā-vyādhin), thieves (stena), robbers (taskara), pickpockets (stāyu), stealers (muṣṇant), and cutters (vi-kṛnta); and designations of sharpers (gṛtsa) and bands (gana, vrāta), apparently of robbers, are mentioned.15 It is therefore not surprising that the Rigveda 19 should contain many prayers for safety at home or on the way, or that the Atharvaveda should devote several hymns to night20 chiefly for protection against the evil doings of thieves and robbers.

Pischel²¹ suggests that in one passage of the Rigveda²² Vasistha is represented as a burglar, but he admits that, since Vasistha was attacking the house of his father Varuna, he was only seeking to obtain what he may have regarded as his own. But the interpretation of the hymn is not certain.23 Sāyaṇa's explanation of one passage of the Rigveda,24 as

10 Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 178, n.

¹¹ xix. 50, 5. Cf. Rv. x. 97, 10 (stena).

¹² Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 984.

¹³ Rv. i. 65, 1; vii. 86, 5.

¹⁴ Rv. iv. 38, 5.

¹⁵ Rv. vi. 12, 5. No doubt this theft is the result of despair at being in debt, which might lead to loss of liberty (Rna).

¹⁸ Rv. i. 50, 2. Cf. Macdonell, Vedic

Mythology, p. 47. 17 xvi. 20. 21. Cf. Taittiriya Samhita, iv. 5, 4, 1; Kāthaka Samhitā, xvii. 13; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 9, 4.

¹⁸ xvi. 25. ¹⁹ i. 129, 9; ii. 23, 16; vi. 24, 10,

^{41, 5; 51, 15;} x. 63, 16. 20 Av. xix. 47-50.

²¹ Vedische Studien, 2, 55, 56. Contrast 1, 106.

²² Rv. vii. 55.

²³ Cf. Aufrecht, Indische Studien, 4, 337 et seq.; Lanman, Sanskrit Reader, 370; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 308; Brhaddevatā, vii. 11 et seq., with Macdonell's notes.

²⁴ vi. 54, I.

referring to professional cattle-trackers, like the Khojis of the

Panjab, seems quite probable.25

The punishment of thieves appears primarily to have been left to the action of the robbed. The practice of binding them in stocks 26 seems clearly referred to. But later, at any rate—and in all probability earlier also, as in other countries—a more severe penalty could be exacted, and death inflicted by the king. There is no hint in Vedic literature of the mode of conviction; a fire ordeal is not known to the Atharvaveda, and the ordeal known to the Chāndogya Upaniṣad 20 is not said to be used in the case of theft. No doubt the stolen property was recovered by the person robbed if he could obtain it. Nothing is known as to what happened if the property had passed from the actual thief into the possession of another person.

²⁵ Zimmer, op. cit., 182, 183, citing Elliot, Memoirs, 1, 276; Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 123.

25 Cf. Rv. i. 24, 13. 15; vii. 86, 5; Av. vi. 63, 3=84, 4; 115, 2. 3; 121; xix. 47, 9; 50, 1, all of which passages are cited by Zimmer, 181, 182, to prove this practice. But it must be noted that Rv. vii. 86, 5, alone is not at all conclusive evidence, though Av. xix. 47, 9; 50, 1 (drupade āhan), probably mean the same thing. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 976, 983, renders the passages as referring to casting a thief into a snare, and Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1, 106, makes Rv. vii. 86, 5, refer to the cattle-thief (pasu-trp) taking away the rope from the calf he means to steal. For Rv. x. 4, 6, see above, n. 10. The German and Slavonic parallels cited by Zimmer, 182, n., support his view. See also for a similar punishment in case of debt, Rna.

²⁷ Gautama Dharma Sūtra, xii. 43-45; Āpastamba Dharma Sūtra, i. 9,

25, 4. 5; Jolly, op. cit., 124.

28 Av. ii. 12 was so interpreted by Schlagintweit, Die Gottesurtheile der Inder, 9 et seq. (1866); Weber, Indische Studien, 13, 164 et seq.; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 445; Zimmer, 183 et seq.; but see Bloomfield, American Journal of Philology, 11, 330 et seq.; Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 294-296; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 54; Grill, Hundert Lieder, 247, 85; Jolly, op. cit., 146.

29 vi. 16; Jolly, loc. cit.

Tastuva, or Tasruva, as the Paippalāda recension has it, is the name of a remedy against snake poison, and is mentioned along with Tābuva in the Atharvaveda.¹

1 v. 13, 10. 11. Cf. Bloomfield, | ney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 428; Whit- | 244.

Tājad-bhanga ('easily broken') is apparently the name of a tree or plant in the Atharvaveda.1 The Kausika Sūtra2 treats it as a compound word, and its commentator makes it out to be the castor-oil plant (eranda). Whitney,3 however, treats the expression as two separate words, and thinks that the passage means 'may they be broken suddenly (tājat) like hemp (bhanga).'

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35; Lanman in Whitney, Translation
  <sup>1</sup> viii. 8, 3 (a battle hymn).
  2 xvi 14. Cf. Bloomfield's edition, of the Atharvaveda, 502; Zimmer,
sliv; Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 583, Altindisches Leben, 72. 584; Caland, Altindisches Zauberritual, 3 Op. cit., 504.
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Tanda seems to be the name of a sage to whose school belonged the Tāṇḍa Brāhmaṇa mentioned in the Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra.1

1 vii. 10, 17. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 49.

Tāṇda-vinda, or Tāṇḍa-vindava, is the name of a teacher mentioned in the Śānkhāyana Āranyaka.1

1 viii. 10. The manuscripts differ as to the form of the name.

Tāṇḍi occurs as the name of a pupil of Bādarāyaṇa in the Vamsa (list of teachers) at the end of the Samavidhana Brāhmana.1

1 See Konow's Translation, 80, n. 2.

Tāṇdya is the name of a teacher in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa,1 quoted on a point bearing on the Agniciti, or piling of the sacred fire. He is also mentioned in the Vamsa Brāhmaņa.2 The Tāṇdya Mahābrāhmaṇa or Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa³ of the Sāmaveda represents the school of the Tāndins.

1 vi. 1, 2, 25. Cf. Lévi, La Doctrine | Series, 1869-74. See Weber, Indian Literature, 66 et seq., 74, 133; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 203, 210; Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy

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du Sacrifice, 140.

² Weber, Indische Studien, 4, 373, 384.

³ Edited in the Bibliotheca Indica of Arts and Sciences, 15, 23 et seq. VOL. I.

Tāta, apparently 'dada's boy,' an affectionate term of address by a father (cf. Tata) to a son, is found in the Brāhmaṇas,¹ occurring in the vocative only. But in the sense of 'father,' through confusion with Tata, it occurs also as early as the Aitareya Āraṇyaka.²

¹ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 14, 4; Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 1, 6; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iv. 4, 2.

² i. 3, 3, where Tata and Tāta are given as variant forms of the address of the child to the father. Little,

Grammatical Index, 75, takes Tata to mean 'father' primarily, but this seems unlikely.

Cf. Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 449, 454.

Tādurī is mentioned in a verse of the Atharvaveda¹ together with the female frog (Maṇḍūkī). Some similar animal must be meant,² but Roth,³ with the commentator Durga on the Nirukta,⁴ regards the word as an adjective describing the frog.

1 iv. 15, 14.

² Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 175.

3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.,

where he suggests taduri, from the root tad, 'beat,' with the sense of 'splashing.'

I. Tānva in an obscure passage of the Rigveda¹ seems to mean a 'legitimate son,' who is said not to leave the heritage (riktha) of his father to his sister (jāmi). The exact meaning is probably unascertainable,² but the passage may convey a statement of what was no doubt the fact, that the daughter had no share in the paternal inheritance; her brother had to provide for her during her life if she remained unmarried, but she had no independent portion.³ (See Dāya.)

¹ iii. 31, 2. ² Cf. Griffith, Hymns of the Rigueda, 1, 348; Oldenberg, Rgueda Noten, 1, 240; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 3, 34. ³ Cf. Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 87, for the modern law of the Panjab.

2. Tānva appears to be a patronymic, 'descendant of Tanva,' in a verse of the Rigveda.¹ Ludwig² thinks that it is the patronymic of Duḥśīma, who is mentioned in the preceding verse, but this is uncertain.

¹ x. 93, 15.

² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 166.

- r. Tāpasa, 'ascetic,' is not found in Vedic literature till the Upaniṣads.¹
 - 1 Brhadaranyaka Upanisad, iv. 3, 22. Cf. Fick, Die sociale Gliederung, 40.
- 2. Tāpasa is a name of Datta who was Hotr priest at the snake festival described in the Pañcaviṃsa Brāhmaṇa (xxv. 15).

Tābuva is the name in the Atharvaveda¹ of a remedy against snake poison. The Paippalāda recension has Tāvuca instead. Weber² thinks that the original form was Tāthuva, from the root $sth\bar{a}$, 'stand,' and that it meant 'stopping'; but this is hardly probable.³

- 1 v. 13, 10.
- ² Proceedings of the Berlin Academy, 1896, 681.
 - 3 Barth, Revuedel'Histoiredes Religions,

39, 26. Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 244; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 428.

Tāyādara, 'belonging to the Tayādara' (Av. vi. 72, 2).

Tāyu, 'thief,' is mentioned several times in the Rigveda.¹ See Taskara.

1 i. 50, 2; 65, t; iv. 38, 5; v. 15, 5; cattle - thief, see Pischel, Vedische 52, 12; vi. 12, 5; vii. 86, 5 (pasu-trf, Studien, 1, 106).

Tārakā is found several times in the Atharvaveda¹ denoting a star. The masculine form Tāraka occurs in the Taittirīya Brāhmana.²

1 ii. 8, 1; iii. 7, 4; vi. 121, 3; xix. 49, 8.

Tārukṣya is the name of a teacher in the Aitareya¹ and Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyakas.² In the former passage Tārkṣya is a variant reading, and in the latter Tārkṣya is read, but this is probably only due to confusion with Tārkṣya, the reputed author of a Rigvedic hymn.³

- 1 iii. 1, 6.
- 2 vii. 19.
- 3 Aitareya Āraņyaka, i. 5, 2, with | Śrauta Sūtra, ix. 1.

Keith's note; Sāńkhāyana Srauta Sūtra xi. 14, 28; xii. 11, 12; Āśvalāyana Tārkṣya is mentioned in the Rigveda¹ as a divine steed, apparently the sun conceived as a horse.² But Foy,³ judging by the name, apparently a patronymic of Tṛkṣi, who is known from the Rigveda⁴ onwards as a descendant of Trasadasyu, thinks that a real steed, the property of Tṛkṣi, is meant; but this is not very probable.⁵ See also Tārukṣya.

1 i. 89, 6; x. 178.

² Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 149.

3 Kuhn's Zeitschrift, 11, 366, 367.

4 viii. 22, 7.

⁵ In Khila, ii. 4, 1, Tārkṣya is represented as a bird (vāyasa), also a symbol of the sun. In the Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xv. 18, he is mentioned with Ariṣṭanemi,

originally an epithet of his (Rv. i. 89,6; x. 178, 1), as a person, and in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 3, 13, he appears as Vaipasyata (Vaipascita in Āsvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, x. 7), king of the birds (cf. Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 369).

Tārpya denotes, in the Atharvaveda¹ and later,² a garment made of some material, the nature of which is uncertain. The commentators on the Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra and the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa³ suggest that a linen garment, or one thrice soaked in ghee, or one made of the tṛpā or of the triparṇa plant, is meant: it is doubtful whether the sense was known even to the author of the Brāhmaṇa himself. Goldstücker's⁴ rendering of the word is 'silken garment,' which Eggeling⁵ is inclined to accept.⁶

1 xviii. 4, 31.

4 Dictionary, s.v. abhişecanīya.

Tārṣṭāgha, a species of tree, is mentioned in the Kauśika Sūtra, while the adjective formed from it, tārṣṭāghī, 'derived from the Tārṣṭāgha tree,' is found in the Atharvaveda Weber thinks that the sarṣapa, or mustard plant, is meant.

² Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 4, 11, 6; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 3, 7, 1; 7, 6, 4; Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa, xxi. 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 3, 5, 20; Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 5, 7 et seq.; Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 12, 19.

³ v. 3, 5, 20. Cf. Kātyāyana, loc. cit.; Sāyaṇa on Av., loc. cit.; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 879.

⁵ Sacred Books of the East, 41, 85, n. 1.

¹ xxv 23.

² v. 29, 15. Cf. Whitney's note in his Translation of the Atharvaveda.

³ Indische Studien, 18, 280. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 62.

Titaü¹ is found once in the Rigveda² denoting a 'sieve,' or perhaps 'winnowing fan,' which was used for purifying corn (saktu).

On the peculiar form of this word, of. Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, 20, 3.

Tittira, Tittiri, is the name of the partridge in the later Samhitās¹ and the Brāhmaṇas,² being presumably an onomatopoetic formation. The bird is described as having variegated plumage $(bahu-r\bar{u}pa)$. It is usually associated with the Kapiñ-jala and Kalavińka.

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 5, 1, 2; v. 5, 16, 1; Maitrāyamī Samhitā, ii. 4, 1; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xii. 10; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 30. 36. The form Tittira occurs in the Maitrāyamī Samhitā, iii. 14, 1.

² Satapatha Brāhmaņa, i. 6, 3, 5;

v. 5, 4, 6; Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 154, 6 (Oertel, Transactions of the Connecticul Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 181).

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 91; Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 251.

Tithi, as the name of a lunar day, the thirtieth part of a lunar month of rather over twenty-seven days, is only found in the later Sūtras, being completely unknown to the Brāhmaṇas, in which the only day is the natural one. See Māsa.

1 Gobhila Grhya Sūtra, i. 1, 13; ii. 8, 2 Thibaut, Astronomie, Astrologie und 12. 20; Śāńkhāyana Grhya Sūtra, i. 25; Mathematik, 7, 8. v. 2, etc.

Timirgha Daure-śruta ('descendant of Dūreśruta') is mentioned as Agnīdh ('fire-kindling') priest at the snake sacrifice described in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.¹

1 xxv. 15. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 35.

Tirasca is read in some manuscripts of the Atharvaveda¹ in the description of the Vrātya's throne (Āsandī), meaning 'the cross-pieces.' But the reading should be *tirascye*, which is adjectival, and is used in the same sense.

1 xv. 3, 5. Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 776; Keith, Śāinkh-āyana Āraṇyaka, 19, n. 3.

Tiraśca-rāji,¹ Tiraści-rāji,² Tiraścīna-rāji,³ are variant forms of a name for 'snake' (lit., 'striped across'), found in the later Samhitās.

¹ Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 10, 2; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 94, 95, reports this form from the Av., but the text and Roth (St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.) read tiraści-rāji there.

² Av. iii. 27, 2; vi. 56, 2; vii. 56, 1; x, 4, 13; xii. 3, 56.

3 Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, ii. 13, 21; Šānkhāyana Āraņyaka, xii. 27.

Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 488, 553: Keith, Sänkhäyana Āranyaka, 68, n. 2; Weber, Indische Studien, 17, 295-297.

Tiraścī is, according to the Anukramaṇī, the author of a Rigvedic hymn¹ in which he appeals to Indra to hear his call. The Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa² adopts this view of the name, and mentions a Tiraścī Āṅgirasa. But Roth³ thinks that the word is not a proper name at all.

1 viii. 95, 4.

² xii. 6, 12.

3 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 115. Cf. Vedic Grammar, p. 273.

Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 5, 187; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 90; Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, p. 273.

Tiraścīna-vaṃśa, 'cross-beam,' is used to denote a 'bee-hive' in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad.¹ See also Vaṃśa.

1 iii. 1, 1. Cf. Little, Grammatical Index, 75.

Tirindira is mentioned in a Dānastuti, or 'Praise of Gifts,' in the Rigveda¹ as having, along with Parśu, bestowed gifts on the singer. In the Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra² this statement is represented by a tale that the Kaṇva Vatsa obtained a gift from Tirindira Pāraśavya, Tirindira and Parsu being in this version thus treated as one and the same man. Ludwig³ sees in the Rigvedic passage a proof that the Yadus had gained a victory over Tirindira, and gave a part of the booty to the singers; but there is no proof whatever of the correctness of this interpretation, which Zimmer¹ shows to be most unlikely. Yadu princes must be meant by Tirindira and

¹ viii. 6, 46-48. 3 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 160, 2 xvi. 11. 20. 161; 5, 142. 4 Allindisches Leben, 136, 137.

Parsu, though Weber⁵ thinks that the singers were Yadus, not the princes. The latter he holds to have been Iranian (cf. TipiBaζos, and see Parsu), and he thinks that in this there is evidence of continual close relations between India and Iran. This is perfectly possible, but the evidence for it is rather slight.

⁵ Indische Studien, 4, 356, n.; Indian Literature, 3, 4; Episches im vedischen

Ritual, 37, 38.

6 For the recent controversy as to Iranian names found at Boghaz-kiōi, cf. Jacobi, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1909, 721 et seq.; Oldenberg, ibid., 1095-1100; Keith, ibid., 1100-1106; Sayce, ibid., 1106, 1107; Kennedy, ibid., 1107-1119. Hillebrandt, Vedische

Mythologie, 1, 94 et seq., argues in favour of an early connexion of Iranians and Indians in Arachosia, where he places part of the action of the Rigveda. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 16, 277, holds that traces of Iranian connexion are signs of late date; Arnold, ibid., 18, 205 et seq., opposes this view.

Tirīţa¹ is found in the Atharvaveda² in the adjectival derivative *tirīṭin* used of a demon, and presumably meaning 'adorned with a tiara.'

1 Meaning, according to later native lexicographers, 'head-dress' or 'diadem.'

² viii. 6, 7. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 265; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 495.

Tirya occurs in the Atharvaveda¹ as an epithet of Karambha, 'gruel.' It is probably equivalent to tilya, 'made of sesamum,' as rendered by Roth² and Whitney,³ but tiriya is read by Roth⁴ in the Rāja-nighaṇṭu as a kind of rice.

1 iv. 7, 3.

² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

3 Translation of the Atharvaveda,

155.

4 See Whitney, los. cit., with Lanman's additional note. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 377, construes the adjective with visam, and renders 'the poison which comes in a horizontal direction' (cf. tiryanc). Grill, Hundert Lieder, 2 121, amends to atiriya, 'overflowing.'

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 270; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda,

3, 201.

Tiryanc Āngirasa is mentioned as a seer of Sāmans, or Chants, in the Pancavimsa Brāhmaņa. The name is doubtless feigned.

1 xii. 6, 12. Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 160.

Tila denotes in the Atharvaveda¹ and later² the sesamum plant, and particularly its grains, from which a rich oil (Taila) was extracted. It is often³ mentioned in connexion with Māṣa, 'kidney bean.' The Taittirīya Saṃhitā⁴ attributes the bean and the sesamum to the winter (hemanta) and the cool (śiśira) seasons. The stalk of the sesamum plant (tila-piñjī,⁵ til-piñja⁶) was used for fuel, and the seed was boiled in the form of porridge (tilaudana⁷) for food.

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<sup>1</sup> ii. 8, 3; vi. 140, 2; xviii. 3, 69; 4, 32.
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² Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 2, 10, 2; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iv. 3, 2; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xviii. 12; Šatapatha Brāhmaņa, ix. 1, 1, 3, etc.

³ Av. vi. 140, 2; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, loc. cit.; Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 3, 22; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 10, 6, etc.

- 4 Loc. cit.
- ⁵ Av. ii. 8, 3.
- 6 Av. xii. 2, 54.
- Brhadāranyaka Upanişad, vi. 4,
 Sānkhāyana Āranyaka, xii. 8.
 Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 240.

Tilvaka is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ as a tree (Symplocos racemosa), near which it is inauspicious to construct a grave. The adjectival derivative tailvaka, 'made of the wood of the Tilvaka,' is found in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā,² and is employed to describe the yūpa, or sacrificial post, in the Ṣaḍviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.³

Tiṣya occurs twice in the Rigveda,¹ apparently as the name of a star,² though Sāyaṇa takes it to mean the sun. It is doubtless identical with the Avestan Tistrya. Later it is the name of a lunar mansion: see Nakṣatra.

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1 v. 54, 13; x. 64, 8 (with Kṛśānu as an archer).

Altindisches Leben, 355; Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 331; Keith, Śāńkhāyana Aranyaka, 77, n. 1.
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Tisṛ-dhanva, 'a bow with three (arrows),' is mentioned as a gift to the priest at the sacrifice in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā¹ and in the Brāhmaṇas.²

¹ i. 8, 19, 1. 2 Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 8, 3, 4; | ii. 7, 9, 2; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xi. 1,

Tugra appears in the Rigveda¹ as the name of the father of Bhujyu, a protégé of the Aśvins, who is accordingly called Tugrya² or Taugrya.³ A different Tugra seems to be referred to in other passages of the Rigveda⁴ as an enemy of Indra.

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1 i. 116, 3; 117, 14; vi. 62, 6.

2 Rv. viii. 3, 23; 74, 14.

3 Rv. i. 117, 15; 118, 6; 182, 5. 6;

viii. 5, 22; x. 39, 4.

4 vi. 20, 8; 26, 4; x. 49, 4. Cf.
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Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 55, 328, 329; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 157.

Tugrya occurs in the Rigveda as a patronymic of Bhujyu,¹ but also in a passage² in which no reference to Bhujyu appears to be meant, and in which it may mean 'a man of the house of Tugra.' A similar sense seems to occur in the locative plural feminine in the Rigveda,³ where (supplying vikṣu) the meaning must be 'among the Tugrians.' This explanation may also apply to the epithet of Indra⁴ or Soma,⁵ tugryā-vṛdh, 'rejoicing among the Tugrians.'

¹ Who is also called Tugrasya sūnu, Rv. vi. 62, 6. Cf. the use of Pujriya and perhaps Kṛṣṇiya in the patronymic sense without Vṛddhi.

² viii. 32, 20.

3 i. 33, 15. Cf. Griffith, Hymns of the Rigveda, 1, 47.

4 viii. 45, 29; 99, 7.

⁵ viii. 1, 15, where, however, Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., suggests an alteration to make it refer to Indra.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 128.

Tue in the Rigveda¹ occasionally occurs denoting 'children.' Tuj occurs rather more often in the same sense.² Cf. Tanaya and Toka.

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<sup>1</sup> viii. 18, 18; 27, 14; vi. 48, 9.
<sup>2</sup> iii. 45, 4; iv. 1, 3; v. 41, 9; viii. 4, 15.
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Tuji is the name in the Rigveda¹ of a protégé of Indra, who in another hymn² appears to be called Tūtuji.

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<sup>1</sup> vi. 26, 4; x. 49, 4.

<sup>2</sup> vi. 20, 8. Cf. Ludwig, Translation

of the Rigveda, 3, 156; Oldenberg,
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Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 55, 328.

Tuminja Aupoditi is mentioned in the Taittiriya Samhitā (i. 7, 2, 1) as a Hotr priest at a Sattra, or 'sacrificial session,' and as having been engaged in a discussion with Suśravas.

Tura Kāvaṣeya is mentioned in the Vaṃśa (list of teachers) at the end of the tenth book of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ as the source of the doctrine set forth in that book, and as separated, in the succession of teachers, from Śāṇḍilya by Yajňavacas and Kuśri. In the same Brāhmaṇa² he is quoted by Śāṇḍilya as having erected a fire-altar on the Kārotī. In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa³ he appears as a Purohita, or 'domestic priest,' of Janamejaya Pārikṣita, whom he consecrated king. In the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad⁴ and a Khila⁵ he appears as an ancient sage. Oldenberg, on doubt rightly, assigns him to the end of the Vedic period. He is probably identical with Tura, the deva-muni, 'saint of the gods,' who is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.8

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1 x. 6, 5, 9.
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⁷ So the St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

8 XXV. 14, 5. See Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 68.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 203, n.; Indian Literature, 120, 131; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 43, xviii.

Tura-śravas is the name of a seer mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa¹ as having pleased Indra by two Sāmans (Chants) of his composition. Indra in return appears to have given him the oblation of the Pārāvatas on the Yamunā.

1 ix. 4, 10. Cf. Hopkins, Transactions | Sciences, 15, 53; Max Müller, Sacred of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and | Books of the East, 32, 316.

Turya-vāh, masc.; Turyauhī, fem., 'a four-year-old ox or cow,' is mentioned in the later Saṃhitās.¹

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 3, 3, 2; | 17; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xiv. 10; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 11, 11; 13, | xviii. 26, etc.

Turva occurs only once in the Rigveda (x. 62, 10), doubtless as a name of the Turvaśa people or king.

² ix. 5, 2, 15.

³ iv. 27; vii. 34; viii. 21.

⁴ vı. 5, 4 (Kāṇva, not in Mādhyaṃ-dina).

⁵ i. 9, 6; Scheftelowitz, Die Apokryphen des Rgveda, 65, 190.

⁶ Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 239.

Turvaśa occurs frequently in the Rigveda as the name of a man or of a people, usually in connexion with Yadu. The two words usually occur in the singular without any connecting particle, Turvaśa Yadu or Yadu Turvaśa.² In a plural form the name Turvaśa occurs once with the Yadus,³ and once alone⁴ in a hymn in which the singular has already been used. In one passage⁵ the dual Turvaśā-Yadū actually occurs, and in another⁶ Yadus Turvaś ca, 'Yadu and Turva.' In other passages⁷ Turvaśa appears alone, while in one⁸ Turvaśa and Yādva occur.

From these facts Hopkins⁹ deduces the erroneousness of the ordinary view, 10 according to which Turvaśa is the name of a tribe, the singular denoting the king, and regards Turvaśa as the name of the Yadu king. But the evidence for this is not conclusive. Without laying any stress on the argument based on the theory 11 that the 'five peoples' of the Rigveda are the Anus, Druhyus, Turvaśas, Yadus, and Pūrus, it is perfectly reasonable to hold that the Turvaśas and Yadus were two distinct though closely allied tribes. Such they evidently were to the seers of the hymns which mention in the dual the Turvaśā-Yadū and speak of Yadus Turvaś ca. This explanation also suits best the use of the plural of Turvaśa in two Rigvedic hymns.

In the Rigveda the chief exploit of Turvaśa was his participation in the war against Sudās, by whom he was defeated.¹² Hopkins¹³ suggests that he may have been named Turvaśa because of his fleet (tura) escape from the battle. His escape

¹ i. 36, 18; 54, 6; 174, 9; vi. 20, 12; 45, 1; viii. 4, 7; 7, 18; 9, 14; 45, 27; x. 49, 8. In vii. 18, 6, Turvasa is joined with Yaksu, apparently a contemptuous variant of Yadu (Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 261). Cf. Trtsu.

² v. 31, 8.

 ³ i. 108, 8.
 4 viii. 4, 18; singular with Anava in viii. 4, 1.

⁵ iv. 30, 17.

⁶ x. 62, 10. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 166; Oldenberg,

Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 220, n. 1.

⁷ i. 4, 77; vi. 27, 7. Cf. viii. 4, 1.

⁸ vii. 19, S.

⁹ Op. cit., 258 et seq.

¹⁰ Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 122, 124; Oldenberg, Buddha, 404; Ludwig, op. cit., 153; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 64; Sanskrit Literature, 153 et seq., etc.

¹¹ Zimmer, 122, 124; Macdonell,

^{153, 154.}

¹² vii. 18, 6.

¹³ Op. cit., 264.

may have been assisted by Indra, for in some passages ¹⁴ Indra's aid to Turvaśa (and) Yadu is referred to; it is also significant that the Anu, and apparently the Druhyu, kings are mentioned as having been drowned in the defeat, but not the Turvaśa and Yadu kings, and that Turvaśa appears in the eighth book of the Rigveda as a worshipper of Indra with the Anu prince, the successor, presumably, of the one who was drowned. ¹⁵ Griffith, ¹⁶ however, proposes to refer these passages to a defeat by Turvaśa and Yadu of Arna and Citraratha on the Sarayu; ¹⁷ but the evidence for this is quite inadequate.

Two passages of the Rigveda 18 seem to refer to an attack by Turvaśa and Yadu on Divodāsa, the father of Sudās. It is reasonable to suppose that this was an attack of the two peoples on Divodāsa, for there is some improbability of the references being to the Turvaśa, who was concerned in the attack on Sudās, the son.

Zimmer ¹⁹ considers that the Turvaśas were also called Vṛcīvants. This view is based on a hymn ²⁰ in which reference is made to the defeat of the Vṛcīvants on the Yavyāvatī and Hariyūpīyā in aid of Daivarāta, and of Turvaśa in aid of Sṛñjaya, the latter being elsewhere ²¹ clearly the son of Devarāta. But as this evidence for the identification of the Turvaśas with the Vṛcīvants is not clear, it seems sufficient ²² to assume that they were allies.

Later, in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa,²³ the Turvaśas appear as allies of the Pañcālas, Taurvaśa horses, thirty-three in number, and armed men, to the number of 6,000, being mentioned.²⁴ But otherwise the name disappears: this lends

15 Hopkins, 265.

¹⁴ Rv. i. 174, 9; iv. 30, 17; v. 31, 8; viii. 4, 7.

¹⁶ Hymns of the Rigveda 1, 433, n.

¹⁷ The hymn is a late one, and the connexion of verse 18, where Arna and Citraratha are mentioned, is obscure. Cf. Hopkins, 259.

¹⁸ vi. 45, 1; ix. 61, 2 (where Divodāsa is mentioned); vii. 19, 8 (where he appears as Atithigva).

¹⁹ Op. cit., 124. 20 vi. 27, 5-7.

¹v. 15, 4.

²² Oldenberg, Buddha, 404, n. Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 105.

²³ xiii. 5, 4, 16.

²⁴ The sense is obscure. The St. Petersburg Dictionary takes it apparently as 6,033 horses (of armed warriors); Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 400, prefers to understand it as 33 horses and 6,000 men; Oldenberg, loc. cit., takes it as 6,033 warriors. Harisvāmin's Commentary, cited by Eggeling, is obscure.

probability to Oldenberg's conjecture 25 that the Turvaśas became merged in the Pancāla people. Hopkins 26 considers that in the Śatapatha passage the horses were merely named from the family of Turvaśa; but this view is less likely, since it ignores the difficulty involved in the reference to the men.

It is impossible to be certain regarding the home of the Turvasas at the time of their conflict with Sudās. They apparently crossed the Paruṣṇī,²⁷ but from which side is disputed. The view of Pischel²⁸ and Geldner,²⁰ that they advanced from the west towards the east, where the Bharatas were (see Kuru), is the more probable.

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25 Buddha, 404.
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Rv. viii. 20, 24, turvasa is read with Ludwig for tūrvatha, they are connected with the Sindhu.

Cf. Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 167; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 5, 286; Bergaigne, Religion Védique, 2, 354 et seq.

Turvīti is mentioned several times in the Rigveda, both in association with Vayya¹ and alone.² In three passages³ reference is made to Indra aiding him over a flood. Ludwig⁴ has conjectured that he was king of the Turvaśas and Yadus. But there is no sufficient evidence for this view, though presumably he was of the Turvaśa tribe.

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1 i. 54, 6; ii. 13, 12; iv. 19, 6,
2 Rv. i. 36, 18; 61, 11; 112, 23.
3 i. 61, 11; ii. 13, 12; iv. 19, 6.
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4, 254. Cf. Turvasa, and Bergaigne, Religion Védique, 2, 358; Oldenberg, Sacred Books of the East, 42, 36.

Tulā, 'scales,' is mentioned in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā.¹ The Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa² also speaks of the balance in connexion with the weighing of a man's good and evil deeds in the next and in this world. This differs very considerably from the later balance³ ordeal, in which a man was weighed twice, and was pronounced guilty or innocent according as, on the second occasion, he was more or less heavy than on the

²⁶ Op. cit., 258, n. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 220.

²⁷ Rv. vii. 18.

²⁸ Vedische Studien, 2, 218. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 126.

²⁹ Vedische Studien, 3, 152. If in

⁴ Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 147;

¹ xxx. 17.

² xi. 2, 7, 33.

³ Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 145.

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first. It is not possible to read the later practice into the earlier.4

4 Weber, Indische Streifen, 1, 21; 2, 363, quotes Schlagintweit as giving | Books of the East, 44, 45, n. 4. this passage as an example of the

balance ordeal. Cf. Eggeling, Sacred

Tuşa, in the Atharvaveda 1 and later, 2 regularly denotes the 'husk' of grain, often used for a fire.3

1 ix. 6, 16; xi. 1, 12, 29; 3, 5; xii. 3, 19. ² Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 6, 5, 5; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, ii. 7, 9, etc.

3 Tuşa-pakva, Taittiriya Samhitā, v. 2. 4, 2; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 2, 4; Satapatha Brāhmana, vii. 2, 1, 7.

Tūņava denotes in the later Samhitās1 and the Brāhmanas2 a musical instrument of wood, probably the 'flute.' A 'fluteblower' is enumerated among the victims of the Purusamedha, or 'human sacrifice.'3

1 Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 1, 4, 1; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 6, 8; Kāthaka Samhita, xxiii. 4; xxxiv. 5 (Indische Studien, 3, 477).

² Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa, vi. 5, 13;

Taittirīya Brāhmana, iii. 4, 13, 1; 15, 1; Nirukta, xiii. 9.

3 Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 19. 20; Taittirīva Brāhmana, loc. cit.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 289.

Tūtuji. See Tuji.

Tupara, 'hornless,' is a frequent description of animals intended for the sacrifice, especially of the goat, in the Atharvaveda and later.1

Av. xi. 9, 22; Taittirīya Samhitā, | xxiv. 1. 15; xxix. 59, etc.; Satapatha
 ii. 1, 1, 4, etc.; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, | Brāhmaņa, v. 1, 3, 7, etc.

Türghna is mentioned in the Taittirīya Āranyaka (v. 1) as the northern part of Kuruksetra.1 Its exact position, however, cannot be ascertained.

1 Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 78.

Tūrņāśa, in the Rigveda,1 seems to denote a 'mountain torrent.' 1 viii. 32, 4. Cf. Nirukta, v. 16.

Tūrvayāṇa is the name of a prince mentioned in the Rigveda. He appears by name in two passages,¹ and is clearly alluded to in a third,² as an enemy of Atithigva, Āyu, and Kutsa. With this accords the fact that the Pakthas were opposed in the battle of the ten kings to the Tṛtsus,³ and that Tūrvayāṇa is shown by another passage of the Rigveda⁴ to have been a prince of the Pakthas. He is there represented as having been a protégé of Indra, who aided him against Cyavāṇa and his guardians, the Maruts. It is not probable that he is identical with Suśravas.⁵

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<sup>1</sup> i. 53, 10; vi. 18, 12,

<sup>2</sup> ii. 14, 7 (as a comparison of the

two preceding passages shows); per-

haps also viii. 53, 2. In i. 174, 3,

Tūrvayāṇa seems also to be a proper

name, though Roth, St. Petersburg

Dictionary, s.v., here regards the word

as an adjective.
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3 vii. 18. 4 x. 61, 1 et seq.; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1, 71-77. 5 Mentioned in i. 53, 9. 10. Cf. Griffith, Hymns of the Rigveda, 1,

Tūṣa is found in the later Saṃhitās and the Brāhmaṇas¹ denoting the 'fringe' or 'trimming' of a garment.

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1 Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 8, 1, 1; ii. 4, 1, 8; Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa, xvii. 1, 9, 1; vi. 1, 1, 3; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, etc. xxiii. 1; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 6, Cf. Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 262.
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Tṛkṣi is, in the Rigveda,¹ the name of a prince who was a Trāsadasyava, 'descendant of Trasadasyu.' He also appears with the Druhyu and the Pūru peoples in another hymn.² It has been conjectured, but it is not probable, that the steed Tārkṣya (as 'belonging to Tṛkṣi') was his.³

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1 viii. 22, 7.
2 vi. 46, 8. It is not certain that the two persons are identical (cf. Hille-
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Tṛṇa, 'grass,' is often mentioned in the Rigveda¹ and later.² It was used as straw to roof in a house or hut.³

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1 i. 161, 1; 162, 8. 11; x. 102, 10, etc., 2 Av. ii. 30, 1; vi. 54, 1, etc.; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 22; viii. 24, etc.

3 Av. iii. 12, 5; ix. 3, 4. 7.
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Tṛṇa-jalāyuka, 'caterpillar,' is mentioned in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (iv. 2, 4).

Tṛṇa-skanda occurs once in the Rigveda¹ as the name of a prince, his subjects (viŝaḥ) being referred to.² The word may originally have meant 'grasshopper.'³

1 i. 172, 3.

2 Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 159, takes višali as 'cantons,' but see Vis.

3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Tṛtīyaka, 'the tertian (fever),' is mentioned in the Atharvaveda (i. 25, 4; v. 22, 13; xix. 39, 10). See Takman.

Tṛtsu occurs in the Rigveda, once in the singular¹ and several times in the plural,² as a proper name. The Tṛtsus were clearly helpers of Sudās in the great battle against the ten kings, Śimyu, the Turvaśa, the Druhyu, Kavaṣa, the Pūru, the Anu, Bheda, Śambara, the two Vaikarṇas, and perhaps the Yadu, who led with them as allies³ the Matsyas, Pakthas, Bhalānas, Alinas, Viṣāṇins, Śivas, Ajas, Śigrus, and perhaps Yakṣus.⁴ The defeat of the ten kings is celebrated in one

1 vii. 18, 13.

² vii. 18, 7. 15. 19; 33, 5. 6; 83, 4. 6. 8.

3 They were regarded as enemies of the kings by Roth, Zur Litteratur und Geschichte des Weda, 95, and by Zimmer, op. cit., 126. The latter, however, altered his view (see pp. 430, 431, which Hopkins, op. cit., 260, has overlooked), and there is no doubt that the later opinion is correct. Cf. also Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 173; Hopkins, 260, 261. Of these tribes the Pakthas, Alinas, Bhalanas, Visānins, and Šivas, were probably settled in the north-west, to the west of the Indus, and around the Kabul River. The Anus, Purus, Turvasas, Yadus, and Druhyus, were probably tribes of the Panjab; the Ajas, Sigrus, and Yakşus, tribes of the east, under Bheda; Sambara may also have been a native of the east; Simyu and Kavaşa are doubtful; and the Vaikarnau probably belonged to the north-west.

4 This is uncertain; the text of the Rigveda, vii. 18, 6, has Yakşu, and the same word recurs in verse 19. On the other hand, the word Yadu would naturally be expected in verse 6, as Turvasa is mentioned. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 122, says that Yadu occurs in vii. 18, but on p. 126 he cites Yakşu in both places, evidently by oversight. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 261, n., considers that Turvasa, the Yaksu, is a sarcastic expression, instead of Turvasa, the Yadu, making Turvaśa, whom he regards as king of the Yadus, ridiculous as a member of an insignificant people, and alluding to him also as a sacrificial victim (as it were, yastavya, 'to be offered ': cf. purodas, 'cake of sacrifice,' in verse 6, as a pun on purogās, 'leader'). Whether Yakşu is used contemptuously for Yadu or not, it seems hard not to believe that the Yadus are referred

hymn of the Rigveda,5 and is evidently alluded to in two others.6 The great battle took place on the Paruṣṇī, but there was also a fight on the Yamuna with Bheda, the Ajas, Śigrus, and Yakşus. As the Yamunā and the Parusnī represent opposite ends of the territory of the Trtsus (for we cannot with Hopkins7 safely identify the streams), it is difficult to see exactly how the ten kings could be confederated, but it should be noted that the references to the ten kings occur in the two later hymns,6 and not in the hymn5 describing the battle itself; besides, absolute numerical accuracy cannot be insisted upon.

It is difficult exactly to determine the character of the Trtsus, especially in their relation to the Bharatas, who under Viśvāmitra's guidance are represented as prospering and as advancing to the Vipāś and Śutudrī.8 Roth ingeniously brought this into connexion with the defeat of his enemies by Sudas, which is celebrated in the seventh book of the Rigveda-a book attributed to the Vasistha family-and thought that there was a reference in one verse9 to the defeat of the Bharatas by Sudās. But it seems certain that the verse is mistranslated, and that the Bharatas are really represented as victors with Sudas.10 Ludwig 11 accordingly identifies the Trtsus and the Bharatas. Oldenberg, 12 after accepting this view at first,13 later expressed the opinion that the Trtsus were the priests of the Bharata people, and therefore identical with the Vasisthas. This view is supported by the fact that in one passage 14 the Trtsus are clearly described as wearing their hair in the peculiar manner affected by the Vasisthas,15 and would in that passage thus seem to represent the Vasisthas.

⁵ vii. 18.

⁶ vii. 33 and 83.

⁷ India, Old and New, 52. No such conjecture was made by him in the Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 259 et seq.

⁸ Rv. iii. 33; 53, 9-12.

⁹ vii. 33, 6. See Roth, op. cit., 90, 121; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 12, 320; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 154, 155; von Schroeder, Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 35, 36; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologic, 1, 110, 111; Bloomfield,

Journal of the American Oriental Society, 16, 41.

¹⁰ Oldenberg, Buddha, 406; Weber, Episches im vedischen Ritual, 34.

¹¹ Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 175. 12 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenlandischen Gesellschaft, 42, 207. Cf. Bergaigne, Religion Védique, 2, 362.

¹³ Buddha, 405, 406,

¹⁴ Rv. vii. 33, 1 (śvityanco daksinataskapardāh).

¹⁵ Rv. vii. 83, 8 (&:ityanco . . . kapardinah).

But Geldner 16 has suggested with great probability that Trtsu, who is once mentioned in the singular,17 means the Trtsu king-that is, Sudās.18 This explanation alone justifies the description 19 of the Bharatas as Trtsūnām viśah, 20 '. subjects of the Trtsus,' meaning the Trtsu Gotra or family, for the people could not be said to be subjects of a body of priests. The Vasisthas might be called Trtsus because of their close connexion with the royal house of that people. The reverse process is also quite possible, but is rendered improbable by the fact that the Pratrdah are referred to as receiving Vasistha.21 This name of the Trtsu dynasty is probably older than its connexion with Vasistha in the time of Sudas, a conclusion supported by the name of Pratardana, who is mentioned later as a descendant of Divodāsa,22 an ancestor of Sudās. Trtsu dynasty could therefore hardly have been referred to as Vasisthas. For the further history of the dynasty and its relation with Vasistha and Viśvāmitra, see Sudās.

If the Tṛtsus and their subjects, the Bharatas, were in the Rigvedic period at war with the tribes on either side of the territory between the Paruṣṇī and the Yamunā, it is clear²³ that later on they coalesced with the Pūrus and probably others of those tribes to form the Kuru people. Already in the Rigveda²⁴ the Tṛtsus are allied with the Sṛñjayas, and in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa²⁵ one Purohita serves both Kurus and Sṛñjayas.

16 Vedische Studien, 2, 136; Rgveda-Glossar, 74.

17 Rv. vii. 18, 13.

18 Cf. Rv. vii. 18, 24. The parallelism of verses 13 and 24 is quite beyond question. Moreover, the praise of Sudās and of the Bharatas is found coupled in Rv. iii. 53, 9. 12. 24, and in Rv. vi. 16, 4. 5, Divodāsa is coupled with the Bharatas in such a way as to suggest irresistibly that Divodāsa was a Bharata.

19 Rv. vii. 33, 6.

²⁰ That this is the sense of viśali is almost certain. See Geldner, Vedische Studien, loc. cit. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 159, and Hillebrandt, Vedische

Mythologie, I, III, render it 'cantons,' but see Vis.

21 Rv. vii. 33, 14. Geldner (op. cit., 138, 139) ingeniously suggests that Vasistha, being miraculously born, needed a Gotra, and so became a Trtsu.

²² Pratardana is mentioned in the Kauṣītaki Brāhmana, xxvi. 5, as Daivodāsi, 'descendant of Divodāsa.'

²³ Cf. Oldenberg, Buddha, 406 et seq., and see Kuru.

24 See Rv. vi. 47, where Divodāsa and Sārnjaya are both praised. In vi. 27, 5, the Turvasas are opposed to the Srnjayas, and in vii. 18, 6; 19, 8, the Trtsus are opposed to the Turvasas.

25 ii. 4, 4, 5.

Hillebrandt²⁶ considers that the Trtsus cannot be identified with the Bharatas, but that Sudas and the Bharatas represent an invading body, which, however, became allied with the Trtsus and the Vasistha priests. He also thinks that the Rigveda reveals a time when Divodasa, the grandfather or ancestor of Sudās, was living in Arachosia, on the Sarasvatī. and warring against the Panis, whom he identifies with the But this conjecture²⁷ cannot be regarded as Parnians. probable. In the Sarasvatī²⁸ it is not necessary to see any other river than the later Sarasvatī, in the middle country, which flowed within the boundaries of the Trtsus: it is also significant that there are references²⁹ to contests between Turvaśa Yadu and Atithigva or Divodāsa. Thus there is no reason to doubt that Divodasa and the Bharatas were in the middle country, and not in Iran.

26 Vedische Mythologie, 1, 98 et seq.

27 Cf. also Grierson, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1908, 837 et

28 Rv. vi. 61, 3. Brunnhofer, Iran und Turan, 127, identifies this river with | East, 32, 424.

the Oxus, but Hillebrandt identifies it with the Haraqaiti.

29 Rv. ix. 61, 2. Cf. vi. 45, 1; Zimmer, op. cit., 124.

Cf. Max Müller, Sacred Books of the

Tṛṣṭa is mentioned in the Maitrāyaṇī¹ and Kāṭhaka Saṃhitās² as being along with Varutri the priest of the Asuras.

tain; it may be Tṛṣṭhā-varutrī. See von Schroeder's edition, p. 106, n.

uncertain. The Kapisthala Samhita, Levi, La Doctrine du Sacrifice, 119.

1 iv. 8, 1. The reading is uncer- | xlvi. 4, has Tvaștā - varutrī (von Schroeder's edition of the Kāthaka, 2, 18r, n.).

2 xxx, 1, where again the reading is | Cf. Muir, Sanshrit Texts, 12, 190, 191;

Tṛṣṭāmā is mentioned as a stream in the Nadī-stuti, or 'praise of rivers,' in the Rigveda.1 There seems to be no means of identifying it.

1 x. 75, 6. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 14.

Tejana denotes in the Rigveda¹ a rod or staff of reed used for measuring a field. In the Atharvaveda the sense of 'bamboo' is found twice,2 the bamboo being specified in the

[|] Cf. taijana as an adjective in Kāthaka 1 i. 110, 5. ² i. 2, 4; xx. 136, 3 (= Khila, v. 22, 3). | Samhitā, xxi. 10.

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second passage as 'of the spring' (vāsantika); more particularly it denotes the shaft of an arrow,3 a sense often found in later Vedic texts.4

3 Av. vi. 49, 1 (Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 317); isu eka-tejanā, 'an arrow with one shaft,' vi. 57, I.

4 Aitareya Brāhmaņa, i. 25; iii. 26; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxv. 1 (with śrnga and salya as the three parts of an arrow; in Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 8, 1, kulmala takes the place of tejana; cf. ibid., 2). The Taittiriya Samhitā, vi. 3, 3, 1, has anīka, śalya, and tejana. Cf. Isu.

Tejanī denotes in the later Samhitās and Brāhmanas a bundle of reeds,1 and in some cases such a bundle twisted into a rope,2 for the two ends of the Tejanī are mentioned.

perhaps Kāthaka Samhitā, xxiii. 9.

¹ Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 8, 3, 12; | ² Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxii. 13; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 11, as rendered by Sāyaṇa.

Tejas is regarded by Schrader as having in the Rigveda 2 the specific sense of 'axe.' But in all the passages the sense of the 'bolt' of the god is adequate.

1 Prehistoric Antiquities, 221.

² Cf. vi. 3, 5; 8, 5; 15, 19.

Taittiriya is the name of one of the divisions of the Black Yajurveda, which is, however, not found thus described until the Sūtra period.1 The school is represented by a Samhitā,2 a Brāhmaņa,3 and an Āraņyaka,4 besides an Upaniṣad,5 which forms a part of the Āraņyaka.

1 Anupada Sūtra, ii. 6; vii. 7. 10, etc. See Weber Indian Literature, 87 et seq.; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 175 et seq.; von Schroeder, Maitrayanī Samhita, I, x et seq.

2 Edited by Weber, Indische Studien, xi, xii, and in the Bibliotheca Indica,

1854-1899.

3 Edited in the Bibliotheca Indica, 1855 - 1870, and in the Anandasrama Series, 1898.

4 Edited in the Bibliotheca Indica, 1864-1872, and in the Anandasrama Series, 1898.

5 Edited by Roer, 1850, and in the Ānandāśrama Series, 1889.

Taimata is twice mentioned as a species of snake in the Atharvaveda.1

1 v. 13, 6; 18, 4. Cf. Whitney, | Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, Tr. nslation of the Atharvaveda, 243; 425; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 95.

Taila, 'sesamum oil,' is mentioned in the Atharvaveda,¹ where² reference is made to keeping such oil in jars. In the Śānkhāyana Āranyaka,³ reference is made to anointing with sesamum oil.

1 i. 7, 2 (all the manuscripts have taula, which must be wrong; the Paippalāda MS. has tūla: see Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 7).

xx. 136, 16.
 xi. 4.
 Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 240,

Toka denotes 'children' or 'descendants' generally in the Rigveda² and later.² The word is often joined with Tanaya.³

¹ i. 43, 2; ii. 2, 11; 9, 2; vii. 62, 6; viii. 5, 20; 67, 11, etc.

² Av. i. 13, 2; 28, 3; v. 19, 2; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxxvi. 7 (Indische Studien, 3, 466); Satapatha Brāhmaņa, vii. 5, 2, 39, etc. ³ Rv. i. 31, 12; 64, 14; 114, 6; 147, 1; ii. 33, 14; v. 53, 13; vi. 1, 12, etc.; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 7.

Tokman, neut., denotes in the Rigveda¹ and later² the green shoots of any kind of grain. In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa³ reference is made to the shoots of rice (vrīhi), large rice (mahā-vrīhi), panic seed (priyangu), and barley (yava).

1 x. 62, 8.

² Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 13. 81; xxi. 30. 42; Kāthaka Samhitā, xii. 11; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 11, 9; Taittirīya Brāhmana, ii. 6, 4; Aitareya Brāhmana, viii, 5, etc. ³ viii. 16. Cf. for its use at the Sautrāmaṇī, Hillebrandt, Rituallitteratur, 160.

Tottra, a 'goad' for driving cattle, is mentioned in the Satapatha Brāhmaņa (xii. 4, 1, 10).

Toda appears once to denote a 'goad' in the Rigveda, but more often it is an agent noun meaning 'impeller.' Geldner considers that in one passage the sense is 'wielder of the rod of punishment' (later danda-dhara)—that is, 'prince.'

1 iv. 16, 11; Mantra in Kausika Sūtra, 107.

² Rv. vi. 6, 6; 12, 1. 3, are probably so to be understood.

3 Vedische Studien, 3, 74.

4 Rv. i. 150, 1.

Taugrya, 'descendant of Tugra,' is the patronymic of Bhujyu in the Rigveda.¹

1 i. 117, 16; 118, 6; 182, 5. 6; viii. 5, 22; x. 39, 4.

Taudī in one passage of the Atharvaveda¹ appears to denote a plant.

1 x. 4, 24. Cf. St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 578, leaves the word untranslated. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 608, suggests that it is

a fanciful name, 'the piercer,' since it is associated with ghylācī, 'dripping with ghee,' which is clearly such a word.

Taurvaśa. Sec Turvaśa.

Taula, the reading of the text of the Atharvaveda (i. 7, 2), and a form which is otherwise unknown and cannot be satisfactorily explained, must doubtless be meant for Taila.

Tauvilikā, occurring once in a hymn of the Atharvaveda,¹ is a word of quite uncertain sense. Roth² thinks it means some kind of beast; Zimmer³ and Whitney⁴ regard it as a sort of plant; Sāyaṇa explains it as a disease-causing demon, while Bloomfield⁵ leaves the sense doubtful.

Trapu denotes 'tin' in the Atharvaveda¹ and later.² Its quality of being easily smelted, which Roth³ thinks is indicated by the name (as derived from the root trap, 'be ashamed'), is clearly alluded to in the Atharvaveda passage.

¹ vi. 16, 3.

² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

³ Altindisches Leben, 72.

⁴ Translation of the Atharvaveda,

⁵ Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 30, 466.

¹ xi. 3, 8.

² Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xviii. 10; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, ii. 11, 5; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xviii. 13 (all in enumerations of metals); Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 12, 6, 5; Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaņa,

iii. 17, 3; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iv. 17, 7. In Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 7, 5, 1, the form is trapus.

³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. Cf. Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 53.

Trasa-dasyu, son of Purukutsa,1 is mentioned in the Rigveda as king of the Pūrus.2 He was born to Purukutsa by his wife, Purukutsānī, at a time of great distress;3 this, according to Sāyaṇa, refers to Purukutsa's captivity: possibly his death is really meant. Trasadasyu was also a descendant of Giriksit,4 and Purukutsa was a descendant of Durgaha. The genealogy, therefore, appears to be: Durgaha, Giriksit, Purukutsa, Trasadasyu. Trasadasyu was the ancestor of Trksi,5 and, according to Ludwig,6 had a son Hiranin. Trasadasyu's chronological position is determined by the fact that his father, Purukutsa, was a contemporary of Sudas, either as an opponent or as a friend.8 That Purukutsa was an enemy of Sudas is more probable, because the latter's predecessor, Divodāsa, was apparently9 at enmity with the Pūrus, and in the battle of the ten kings Pūrus were ranged against Sudās and the Tṛtsus. Trasadasyu himself seems to have been an energetic king. His people, the Pūrus, were settled on the Sarasvatī, 10 which was, no doubt, the stream in the middle country, that locality according well with the later union of the Pūrus with the Kuru people, who inhabited that country. This union is exemplified in the person of Kuruśravana, who is called Trāsadasyava, 'descendant of Trasadasyu,' in the Rigveda,11 whose father was Mitrātithi, and whose son was Upamaśravas. The relation of Mitrātithi to Trksi does not appear.

Another descendant of Trasadasyu was Tryaruna Traivṛṣṇa, who is simply called Trasadasyu in a hymn of the Rigveda.12

1 Rv. v. 33, 8; vii. 19, 3; viii. 19, 36; iv. 42, 8 et seq.

2 Rv. iv. 38, 1 et seq.; vii. 19, 3. He is merely alluded to in i. 63, 7; 112, 4; viii. 8, 21; 36, 7; 37, 7; 49, 10.

3 Rv. iv. 42, 8 et seq.

4 Rv. v. 33, 8.

⁵ Rv. viii. 22, 7. He was a Pūru king. See vi. 46, 8.

6 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 155, with reference to Rv. v. 33, 7 et seq.

7 So Ludwig, 3, 174, who alters Sudāsam to Sudāse, in support of this view, in Rv. i. 63, 7. Cf. Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gescllschaft, 42, 204, 205, 219; Rgveda-Noten, 1, 63; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 1, 153; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 112, n. 1. Foy, Kuhn's Zeitschrift, 34, 242, denies that the word in this passage is a proper name at all.

8 Cf. Hillebrandt, loc. cit.

9 Rv. i. 130, 7; Ludwig, 3, 114; but see Hillebrandt, 1, 113, 114.

10 Rv. vii. 95, 96; Ludwig, 3, 175;

Hillebrandt, 1, 115.

11 x. 33, 4. Cf. Lanman, Sanskrit Reader, 386 et seq.; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 2, 150, 184.

12 v. 27,

He was not only a 'descendant of Trivṛṣan,' but, according to the Pancaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa,¹³ he was also Traidhātva, 'descendant of Tridhātu.' The order of these two predecessors of Tryaruṇa cannot be determined in any way from Vedic literature. According to the later tradition,¹⁴ a prince named Tridhanvan preceded Tryaruṇa in the succession. Vedic tradition further fails to show in what precise relation Trasadasyu stood to Trivṛṣan or Tryaruṇa.

Trasdasyu Paurukutsa appears in several Brāhmaṇas¹⁵ as a samous sacrificer of ancient times, together with Para Āṭṇāra, Vītahavya Śrāyasa, and Kakṣīvant Auśija, who in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa¹⁶ are called 'ancient great kings' (pūrve mahārājāḥ).

13 xiii. 3, 12. The Tāṇḍaka, cited by Sāyaṇa (Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Kgweda, 67), has Trasadasyu, like the Rv.

14 Harivaṃśa, 714 et seq., where the RV.

14 Harivaṃśa, 714 et seq., where the name (716) is also misread as Tridharman. Traidhātva cannot reasonably be taken as representing a patronymic from Tridhanvan, as Sieg, op. cit., 74-76, seems to do. Trivṛṣan has entirely disappeared from the Epic tradition; there is thus no way of assigning a relative priority to either Trivṛṣan or Tridhanvan.

¹⁵ Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa, xxv. 16; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxii. 3 (*Indische Studien*, 3, 473); Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 6, 5, 3.

16 ii. 6, 11.

Cf. Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 217 et seq.; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1,111-116; 2,165, n. 4; Weber, Indische Studien, 10,25; Lanman, Sanskrit Reader, 386.

Trāta Aişumata ('descendant of Işumant') is mentioned in the Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa¹ as a pupil of Nigaḍa Pārṇavalki.

1 i. 3. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 4, 372.

Trāyamāṇa denotes in the Atharvaveda¹ a plant of an unknown species. The word is possibly only an epithet, retaining its participial sense of 'preserving,' though this interpretation is not favoured by the accent.²

Trāsadasyava, 'descendant of Trasadasyu,' is the patronymic in the Rigveda of Tṛkṣi¹ and of Kuruśravaṇa.² The

¹ viii. 2, 6.

² Trāyamāṇā. Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 477.

¹ viii. 22, 7.

² x. 33, 4.

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word is also applied to Agni as 'protector of, or worshipped by, Trasadasyu' and his line.3

viii. 19, 32; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 96.

Tri-kakud¹ or Tri-kakubh,² 'having three peaks,' occurs in the Atharvaveda and later as the name of a mountain in the Himālaya, the modern Trikota. From it came the salve (Ānjana),³ which tradition made out to be derived from Vṛtra's eye.⁴

1 Av. iv. 9, 8; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, iii. 1, 3, 12.

² Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 6, 3; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxiii. 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xv. 4; Pancavimsa Brāhmana, xxii. 14.

3 Hence called Traikakuda, Av. iv. 9, 9, 10; xix. 44, 6, etc.

4 Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, loc. cit.; Maitrāyaņī and Kāṭhaka Samhitās, loc. cit.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 198; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 5, 29, 30; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 3, 239, n. 4; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 381.

Tri-kadruka, a term used in the plural only, appears to denote three vessels of some kind for holding Soma.

1 i. 32, 3; ii. 11, 17; 15, 1; 22, 1; x. 14, 16.

Tri-kharva is the name of a school of priests mentioned in the Pañcavimáa Brāhmaṇa (ii. 8, 3) as practising a special rite with success.

Trita is clearly a god¹ in Vedic literature, but Yāska in one passage of the Nirukta² already explains the name as that of a Rsi or seer.

1 Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, pp. 67-69.

2 iv. 6.

Tri-pura, 'a threefold stronghold,' is alluded to in the Brāhmaṇas¹ as a secure protection. But as the passages are mythical no stress can be laid on them as evidence for the existence of forts with three concentric walls.

1 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. 3, 3, 25; See also Laittirīya Samhitā, vi. 2, 3; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 11; Kauṣītaki Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xxiv. 10, etc., and Brāhmaṇa in Indische Studien, 2, 310.

Tri-plakṣa, masc. plur., 'the three fig-trees,' is the name of the place where the Dṛṣadvatī disappeared, near the Yamunā, according to the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.¹

1 xxv. 13, 4. Cf. Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta | Sūtra, x. 19, 9; Kātyāyana Srauta Sūtra, Sūtra, xiii. 29, 33; Lāṭyāyana Śrauta | xxiv. 6, 39.

Triy-avi. See Tryavi.

Tri-yuga, neut., is an expression occurring in the Rigveda¹ where it is said that the plants (oṣadhi) were born 'three ages' before the gods (devebhyas triyugam purā). The commentator on the Nirukta² thinks that the ages here meant are the Yugas of the later Indian chronology, the sense of the passage being that the plants were born in the first Yuga. The author of the Śatapatha Brāhmana³ understands three seasons—spring, the rains, and autumn—to be meant in the verse, taking the two words triyugam purā separately as 'formerly, in the three seasons.' The vague sense 'three ages' is quite adequate: the use of 'three' in such cases is a favourite feature in folklore. Cf. Yuga.

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1 x. 97, r = Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 2, 6, r, and Vājasaneyi Samhitā; xii. 75. Cf. Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 41, 340.
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Tri-vatsa, 'three years old,' is an expression applied to cattle in the later Samhitās and the Brāhmaṇas.2

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of this compound, cf. Tryavi.

Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xiv. 10;

vxiii. 26; xxviii. 27; Pañcaviṃśa Brāh-

naṇa, xvi. 13; xviii. 9; xxi. 14, etc.

Cf. Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, viii. 3, 9 ct seq., where one explanation of the word is tri-varsa.
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Tri-vrt, 'threefold,' is the designation of an amulet in the Atharvaveda (v. 28, 2. 4).

Tri-veda Kṛṣṇa-rāta Lauhitya ('descendant of Lohita') is the name of a teacher, a pupil of Śyāmajayanta Lauhitya, according to a Vaṃśa (list of teachers) in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 42, 1). Tri-śanku is in Vedic literature the name of a sage mentioned as a teacher in the Taittirīya Upaniṣad.¹ There is no trace of the later legend by which he becomes the victim of Vasiṣṭha's curse and the object of Viśvāmitra's solicitude, being eventually fixed in the sky as a constellation.² The confusion of the chronology in the tales of Triśanku is a good example of the worthlessness of the supposed epic tradition.

1 i. 10, 1. ² See Muir, Sanshrit Texts, 12, 362, 375 et seq.

Tri-śoka is the name of an ancient mythical seer who is mentioned both in the Rigveda¹ and the Atharvaveda.² A Sāman, or chant, named after him is referred to in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.³

1 i. 112, 13; viii. 45, 30. In x. 29, 2, the word seems merely to be an adjective, meaning 'with triple splendour.'
2 iv. 29, 6.
3 viii. 1.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 107, 162; Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 33.

Trai-kakuda. Sce Trikakud.

Traitana appears in the Rigveda¹ as a Dāsa, an enemy of Dīrghatamas, who seems to have engaged him in single combat and defeated him. The St. Petersburg Dictionary suggests that he is rather a supernatural being allied to Trita (cf. the Avestan Thrita and Thraetaona).²

1 i. 158, 5.

² Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 68.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rig-

veda, 3, 151; Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 144.

Trai-dhātva ('descendant of Tridhātu,') is the patronymic of Tryaruṇa in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xiii. 3, 12).

Trai-pada, neut., occurs as a measure of distance, 'three-quarters' of a Yojana, in the Pañcāviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, where half a Yojana is termed Gavyūti and a quarter Krośa.¹

1 xvi. 13. Cf. Śāùkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiv. 41, 12.

Traivani is mentioned as a pupil of Aupacandhani or Aupajandhani in the first two Vamśas (lists of teachers) in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.¹ In the Mādhyamdina recension² his name occurs twice in the second Vamśa, in both cases as a pupil of Aupajandhani.

¹ ii. 6, 3 (Kāṇva=ii. 5, 21 Mādhyaṃdina); iv. 6, 3 (=iv. 5, 27).

Trai-vṛṣṇa, 'descendant of Trivṛṣan,' is the patronymic of Trayaruṇa in the Rigveda (v. 27, 1).

Try-aruna Trai-vṛṣṇa Trasadasyu is the name of a prince whose generosity to a singer is celebrated in a hymn of the In the Pancavimsa Brahmana² he appears as Rigveda.1 Tryaruna Traidhātva Aiksvāka, and is the hero of the following story. He was out in his chariot with his Purohita, or domestic priest, Vrsa Jana, and by excessive speed in driving killed a Brahmin boy. This sin was atoned for by the Purohita's using his Vārśa Sāman (chant). The Śātyāyana Brāhmana, cited by Sāyana,3 elaborates the tale. As Vrsa had held the reins, king and priest accused each other of the murder. The Ikṣvākus being consulted threw the responsibility for the crime on Vrsa, who thereupon revived the boy by the Varsa Sāman. In consequence of this unfairness of theirs-being Kṣatriyas they were partial to a Kṣatriya-Agni's glow ceased to burn in their houses. In response to their appeal to restore it, Vṛśa came to them, saw the Piśācī (demoness), who, in the form of Trasadasyu's wife, had stolen the glow, and succeeded in restoring it to Agni. This version with some variations occurs also in the Bṛhaddevatā,4 which connects the story with a hymn of the Rigveda.⁵ Sieg's attempt⁶ to show that the hymn really refers to this tale is not at all successful.7

name.

⁵ v. 2.

¹ v. 27, 1-3. ² xiii. 3, 12. Cf. the Tāṇḍaka recension, cited in Sāyaṇa, on Rv. v. 2, where Trasadasyu is given as the king's

³ On Rv., loc. cit. See also the Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa version in Oertel, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 18, 20.

⁴ v. 14 et seq., with Macdonell's notes.

⁶ Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 64-76. Cf. Geldner, Festgruss an Roth, 192.

⁷ See Oldenberg, Sacred Books of the East, 46, 366 et seq.; Rgveda-Noten, 1, 312; Hillebrandt, Göttingische Gelehrte Anzeigen, 1903, 240 et seq.

It is clear that Trasadasyu must here mean 'descendant of Trasadasyu,' and not King Trasadasyu himself. The difference of the patronymics, Traivṛṣṇa and Traidhātva, by which he is referred to can best be explained by assuming that there were two kings, Trivṛṣan and Tridhātu (or possibly Tridhanvan), from whom Tryaruṇa was descended.⁸ The connexion with the Ikṣvākus is important (see Ikṣvāku).

8 See Sieg, op. cit., 74-76, and Trasadasyu.

Try-avi designates a calf eighteen months old¹ in the Rigveda² and later Samhitās.³

¹ The etymological meaning is apparently 'having three sheep (periods)'—that is, 'having periods of thrice six months,' just as the adjective pañcāvi means 'having five periods of six months,' or 'thirty months old.'

2 iii. 55, 14.

³ Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xvii. 2; xviii. 12, etc. (in the form triyavi); Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xiv. 10; xviii. 26, etc.

Try-āśir, 'with three admixtures,' is an epithet of Soma in the Rigveda.¹ According to Sāyaṇa this means mixed with curds (Dadhi), meal (Saktu), and milk (Payas). More accurately it would seem² to denote the milk (gavāśir), the barley (yavāśir), and the curds (dadhyāśir), which were used to mix with the Soma.

1 v. 27, 5. Cf. perhaps viii. 2, 7 (traya Indrasya somāḥ sutāsaḥ, 'three kinds of Soma pressed for Indra').

2 Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 209; Oldenberg, Sacred Books of the East, 46, 422.

Tvac, 'skin,' 'hide,' (a) denotes specially in the Rigveda¹ the hide used in the process of extracting the Soma juice from the plant. The Soma was pounded with stones (adri) upon the skin laid on the pressing boards (adhiṣavaṇe phalake),² which, however, are not mentioned in the Rigveda. Or if a pestle and mortar were used, the skin was still placed underneath them to catch the drops of juice, not above, as Pischel³ thought.

1 i. 79, 3; iii. 21, 5; ix. 65, 25; | 2 Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 66, 29; 70, 7; 79, 4; 101, 11, 16, etc. | 181-183, and Adhisavana. 3 Vedische Studien, 1, 110.

- (b) Tvac also denotes the rind of the Soma plant that remains after the juice has been extracted.4
- (c) Metaphorically the term kṛṣṇā tvac, 'the black skins,' is applied to the aboriginal enemies of the invading Āryans.⁵
- 4 Rv. ix. 86, 44; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 7, 13, 1; Hillebrandt, op. cit., for which, however, cf. Hillebrandt, op. cit., 51, n. 2, and see Dāsa.

Tvaṣṭṛ is employed once in the Atharvaveda¹ to denote a 'carpenter,' with a deliberate play on the name of the god Tvaṣṭṛ. He is there mentioned as using an axe (svadhiti) to fashion (from wood) 'a well-made form' (rūḥaṃ sukṛtam). See Taṣṭṛ.

1 xii. 3, 33. Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Athervaveda, 688; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Athervaveda, 651.

Tvāṣṭra, 'descendant of Tvaṣṭṛ,' is the patronymic, in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad,¹ of the mythical teacher Ābhūti.

1 ii. 6, 3 (Kāṇva = ii. 5, 22 Mādhyaṃdina); iv. 6, 3 (= iv. 5, 28).

Tsaru.—(a) This word seems to denote some sort of crawling animal in one passage of the Rigveda.¹

1 vii. 50, 1. Cf. Zimmer, Altinaisches Leben, 99.

(b) In the later literature the word means a 'handle,' as of a beaker (Camasa). In this sense also it seems to occur in the description of the plough (Lāngala) in the Atharvaveda² and the later Saṃhitās.³

¹ Pañcaviméa Brāhmaņa, xxv. 4. Cf. Lāṭyāyana Srauta Sūtra, x. 12, 12, etc.

² iii. 17. 3, where the ordinary text has soma-satsaru (so the Pada text), and the Paippaläda recension has somafitsalam.

³ Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 2, 5, 6, has sumati-tsaru; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, ii. 7, 12; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xvi. 12; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xii. 71; Vasiṣṭha Dharma Sūtra, ii. 34, have somapitsaru,

which Vasistha renders as 'provided with a handle for the drinker of Soma' (i.e., somapi-tsaru). Weber, Indische Studien, 17, 255, suggests soma-sa-tsaru, 'with (sa-) strap (uman, a conjectural word) and handle' (tsaru). Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 116, prefers to read throughout sumati-tsaru, 'with well-smoothed handle,' from the root seen in matī-kr, etc. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 236; Bühler, Sacred Books of the East, 14, 13.

Tsārin denotes, in one passage of the Rigveda, a 'hunter' engaged in the chase of the takva (an unknown beast), according to Ludwig and Max Müller. But this explanation is quite conjectural.

1 i. 134, 5.

2 Sacred Books of the East. 32, 448.

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Damśa (lit., 'biter'), 'gad-fly,' is mentioned in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (vi. 9, 3; 10, 2).

Damstra, denoting a prominent tooth, 'tusk,' or 'fang' of an animal, occurs often from the Rigveda onwards.¹

1 Rv. ii. 13, 4; x. 87, 3; Av. iv. 36, 2; x. 5, 43; xvi. 7, 3, etc.

Dakṣa Kātyāyani Ātreya ('descendant of Atri') is mentioned in the Vaṃśas (lists of teachers) of the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 41, 1; iv. 17, 1) as a pupil of Śaṅkha Bābhravya.

Dakṣa Jayanta Lauhitya ('descendant of Lohita') is mentioned in a Vaṃśa (list of teachers) of the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 42, 1) as a pupil of Kṛṣṇarāta Lauhitya.

Dakṣa Pārvati ('descendant of Parvata') is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ as having performed a certain rite which his descendants, the Dākṣāyaṇas, still maintained, thus enjoying royal dignity down to the time of the Brāhmaṇa itself. He appears in the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa² also.

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1 ii. 4, 4, 6.
2 iv. 4.
Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 223;
4, 358; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, 374 ct seq.; Lévi, La Doctrine du Sacrifice, 138.
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Dakṣiṇatas-kaparda is an epithet of the Vasiṣṭhas in the Rigveda (vii. 33, 1) referring to their mode of 'wearing the hair in a braid on the right side.' See Kaparda.

Dakṣiṇā appears repeatedly in the Rigveda¹ and later² as the designation of the gift presented to priests at the sacrifice, apparently because a cow—a prolific (dakṣiṇā) one—was the usual 'fee'³ on such an occasion.⁴ The later Dāna-stutis, or 'Praises of Gifts,' in the Rigveda immensely exaggerate these donations, and the exaggeration grows in the Brāhmaṇas. It is important to notice that these enumerations of gifts in the main include nothing but articles of personal property, such as kine, horses, buffaloes, or camels (uṣṭra), ornaments, and so forth, but not land.⁵ Reference is, however, made in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa⁶ to land as a Dakṣiṇā, but with disapproval, probably because the land came to be regarded as inalienable without the consent of the clansmen.⁵

1 A whole hymn, Rv. x. 107, is devoted to its praise. Cf. i. 168, 7; vi. 27, 8; viii. 24, 29; 39, 5; x. 62, 1, etc.

² Av. iv. 11, 4; v. 7, 11; xi. 7, 9; 8, 22; xiii. 1, 52; xviii. 4, 8, etc.; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, i. 7, 3, 1; 8, 1, 1; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, iv. 19. 23; xix. 30; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 3, 3 ct sca; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 9, 3, 1 ct s.q. The verses (gāthā nārāśaṃsī, either as a single expression or as two separate terms) used to win these Dakṣiṇās were notoriously false. See Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xiv. 5; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 2, 6, 7; Nirukta, i. 7; xi. 2.

3 The transition of meaning is similar in the use of the English word 'fee': 'cattle,' 'money,' 'payment for service' (see Murray's English Dictionary, s.v. 'fee'). Cf. also Go-dāna, n. 4.

J Cf. the rule that when nothing is specified a cow is the Daksinā, Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 2, 13; Lātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, viii. 1, 2.

⁵ So, e.g., Rv. i. 126, 1-4; v. 30,

12-15; viii. 1, 32. 33; 3, 21 et seq.; 4, 19-21; 5, 37-39; 6, 46-48; 55; 56; vii. 18, 21-24, and the full list in Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3. 273-277. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 49 et seq. Clothes (vāsas) and gold are mentioned as a Dakṣiṇā in Av. ix. 5, 14. The four Dakṣiṇās, according to the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 3, 4, 7, are gold, a cow, clothes, and a horse. This is practically exhaustive if the trappings of the horse and ornaments are included.

6 xiii. 7, 1, 13, with which compare xiii. 6, 2, 18, where the Brahmin's land is excluded; and see xiii. 7, 1, 15, where the gift of land is disapproved.

⁷ Satapatha Brāhmana, vii. 1, 1, 4. Cf. above, pp. 100, n. 19, 246; below,

pp. 351, 352.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 169-171; Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 104, 105; Weber, Indische Streifen, 1, 96-98; Bloomfield, Religion of the Veda, 69-74; Atharvaveda, 76 et seq., 100, 121.

Dakṣiṇā-patha (lit., 'the road to the south'), 'the south country,' is found, probably as a designation of the Deccan, as early as the Baudhāyana Dharma Sūtra,¹ coupled with

¹ i. 1, 2, 13. Cf. Oldenberg, Buddha, 394, n., and Baudhāyana Grhya Sūtra, v. 13.

Surāṣṭra. A similar expression is dakṣiṇā padā, 'with southward foot,' in the Rigveda,² referring to the place where the exile (parā-vṛj) goes on being expelled. This no doubt simply means 'the south' beyond the limits of the recognized Āryan world, which even as late as the Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad³ appears as bounded by the Vindhyas on the south.

2 x. 61, 8. 3 ii. 13. Davids, Buddhist India, 30; Keith. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 185; Sänkhäyana Āranyaka, 28, n. 1; Aitareya Āranyaka, 200.

Dakṣiṇā-praṣṭi denotes 'the side horse on the right.' It appears from two passages of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ that there were at times four horses yoked to the chariot, the right and the left yoke horse (dakṣiṇā-yugya, savyā-yugya) in the middle, flanked by one on each side, the two latter of course not being fastened to the yoke at all, but presumably by traces alongside of the yoke horses. See Ratha.

1 v. 1, 4, 9; ix. 4, 2, 11 (this passage appears to speak of three horses only, but cf. v. 4, 3, 17). Cf. also Pañcaviņiša Brāhmaņa, xvi. 13, 12.

Daksiņāyana. See Sūrya.

Dakṣiṇā-yugya, 'the yoke horse on the right,' is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (v. 1, 4, 6; 4, 3, 8; ix. 4, 2, 11). See Ratha.

Daṇḍa, 'staff.' (a) This word is often mentioned in the ordinary sense; for example, when used for driving cattle¹ (go-ajanāsaḥ), or as a weapon.² A staff was given to a man on consecration for driving away demons, according to the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa.³ The staff also played a part in the initiation (upanayana) of a youth on attaining manhood.⁴ In a modified sense the word is used to denote the handle of a ladle or similar implement.⁵

¹ Rv. vii. 33, 6.

² Av. v. 5, 4. Cf. Aitareya Brāhmaņa, ii. 35; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, i. 5,4, 6, etc.

³ iii. 2, I, 32.

⁴ Āśvalāyana Grhya Sūtra, i. 19; 22; Sānkhāyana Grhya Sūtra, ii. 1, 6, 11, etc.

⁵ Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vii. 5; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, vii. 4, 1, 36. Of a musical instrument, Sānkhāyana Āraņyaka, viii. 9; Śrauta Sūtra, xvii. 3, 1 et

- (b) The 'staff' as the symbol of temporal power, implying punishment, is applied by the king (rāja-preṣito daṇḍaḥ).¹ The king, in modern phraseology, was the source of criminal law; and he clearly retained this branch of law in his own hands even in later times.² The punishment of the non-guilty (a-daṇḍya) is given as one of the characteristics of the non-Brahminical Vrātyas in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.³ See also Dharma.
- 1 Pāraskara Gṛhya Sūtra, iii. 15. Cf. Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 4, 4, 7, where the king, being himself 'exempt from punishment' (a-dandya), inflicts judicial punishment (danda-vadha).
- ² Foy, Die königliche Gewalt, 21 et seq.
 ³ xvii. 1, 9; Weber, Indische Studien,
 1, 33.

Daṇḍa Aupara ('descendant of Upara') is mentioned in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā (vi. 2, 9, 4) and the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā (iii. 8, 7) as having performed a certain rite.

Dandana occurs in the Atharvaveda¹ among other names of 'reed' or 'cane.'

1 xii. 2, 54. Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 682.

Datta Tāpasa was Hotr priest at the snake festival described in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.¹

1 xxv. 15, 3. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 35.

Dadhi, 'sour milk,' is repeatedly mentioned in the Rigveda and later.² The Satapatha Brāhmaṇa mentions in order Ghṛta ('clarified butter'), Dadhi, Mastu, which Eggeling renders 'whey,' and Āmikṣā, 'curds.' Dadhi often has the meaning of 'curds' also. It was used for mixing with Soma.⁵

- 1 viii. 2, 9; ix. 87, 1, etc.
- ² Av. iii. 12, 7; iv. 34, 6; Taittirīya Sanihitā, ii. 5, 3, 4, etc.; Pañcavimśa Brāhmaņa, xviii. 5, 12, etc.
- ³ i. 8, 1, 7. *Cf.* Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 348.
- 4 Sacred Books of the East, 12, 218.
- 5 Dadhyāśir, 'mixed with sour milk,' is an epithet of Soma in Rv. i. 5, 5; 137, 2; v. 51, 7; vii. 32, 4. Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 219 et seq. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 227.

oj. Diminot, Attinuismos Loves, 227.

Dadhyañc Ātharvaṇa is a purely mythical sage. In the Rigveda¹ he is clearly a divinity of some kind, but in the later

¹ i. 80, 16; 84, 13. 14; 116, 12; | Vedic Mythology, pp. 141, 142; Hille-117, 22; 119, 9, etc. See Macdonell, | brandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 176. Saṃhitās² and the Brāhmaṇas³ he is metamorphosed into a teacher. In the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa⁴ he is by oversight called an Āṅgirasa.

² Taittirīya Samhitā, v. r. 4, 4; 6, 6, 3; Kāthaka Samhitā, xix. 4.

3 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, iv. 1, 5, 18;
vi. 4, 2, 3; xiv. 1, 1, 18. 20, 25; 4, 13;
Brhadāraņyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 5, 22;
iv. 5, 28, etc.

4 xii, 8, 6. So also Gopatha Brāhmaņa, i. 5, 21.

Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, xxxv; Atharvaveda, 23, 116, 118, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Dadhy-āśir. See Dadhi and Soma.

Dant, Danta, 'tooth,' is frequently mentioned from the Rigveda onwards.¹ Cleansing (dhāv) the teeth was an ordinary act, especially in preparation for a sacrifice, and accompanied bathing, shaving of the hair and beard (keśa-śmaśru), and the cutting of the nails.² A hymn of the Atharvaveda³ celebrates the appearance of the first two teeth of a child, though its exact interpretation is doubtful.⁴ In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa⁵ there is a reference to a child's first teeth falling out. The word seems in the Rigveda⁶ once to denote an elephant's tusk. Whether dentistry was practised is doubtful. The occurrence in the Aitareya Āraṇyaka¹ of Hiraṇya-dant, 'gold-toothed,' as the name of a man, is perhaps significant, especially as it is certain that the stopping of teeth with gold was known at Rome as early as the legislation of the Twelve Tables.8

¹ Rv. vii. 55, 2; x. 68, 6; Av. v. 23, 3; 29, 4; vi. 56, 3, etc. The more usual form is Danta, Rv. iv. 6, 8; vi. 75, 11; Av. iv. 3, 6, etc.

² Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 6, 2 (not exactly paralleled in Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vi. 1, 1, 2 et seq.).

³ vi. 140.

⁴ Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 32¹; Weber, Indische Studien, 5, 224; Grill, Hundert Lieder, 276; Bloomfield, Hynns of the Atharvaveda, 540, 541; Atharvaveda, 71; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 386.

⁵ vii. 14; Sānkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xv. 18.

6 iv. 6, 8; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1, 99; Oldenberg, Sacred Books of the East, 46, 341, 342.

7 ii. 1, 5.

8 Keith, Ailareya Āranyaka, 206. See Wordsworth, Fragments and Specimens of Early Latin, 537.

Dabhīti appears several times in the Rigveda as a hero or sage. Indra overcomes on his behalf Cumuri and Dhuni;1

he pressed Soma for Indra,2 who rewarded him.3 For him 30,000 Dāsas were sent to sleep,4 and for him the Dasyus were bound without cords.5 Dabhīti also appears, with Turvīti, as a protégé of the Aśvins.6 There seems no reason to deny that he was a real person.7

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2 vi. 20, 13.
3 vi. 26, 6.
4 iv. 30, 21.
5 ii. 13, 9.
6 i. 112, 23.
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7 Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 155, 157, 158.

Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology,

Dama, 'house,' is a word that occurs several times in the Rigveda.1 It denotes, according to Roth,2 the place in which a man wields uncontrolled power (from the root dam, 'control').

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etc.; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, viii. 24.
  2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. But 'build,' in Greek.
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1 i. 1, 8; 61, 9; 75, 5; 143, 4; ii. 1, 2, | this seems very doubtful in view of the apparent connexion of δόμος and δέμω,

Dam-pati denotes 'the master of the house' in the Rigveda,2 but is more often used in the dual to designate 'the master and the mistress,'3 an expression that may legitimately be deemed to show the high status of women at the time of the Rigveda. See Strī.

1 For the form, cf. Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, p. 37, n. 9. Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 307 et seq., argues in favour of the spelling dampati (adopted by Geldner in his Rgv.da, Glossar). Cf. patir dan, Rv. i. 149, 2; Oldenberg, Sacred Books of the East, 46, 176, 177.

2 i. 127, 8; ii. 39, 2; v. 22, 4; viii. 69, 16; 84, 7.

3 Rv. v. 3, 2; viii. 31, 5; x. 10, 5; 68, 2; 85, 32; 95, 12, etc.; Av. vi. 123, 3; xii. 3, 14; xiv. 2, 9, etc.

Cf. Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 418, 420.

Darbha is the name of a grass in the Rigveda¹ and later.² In the Atharvaveda it is used for the calming of anger (manyuśamana),3 and as an amulet for protection against the scattering of one's hair or the striking of one's breast.4 It is also said to be 'rich in roots' (bhūri-mūla),5 to possess a thousand leaves (sahasra-parṇa) and a hundred stalks (śata-kāṇḍa).6

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1 i. 191, 3 (with Sara and Kusara.
varieties of grass).
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² Av. vi. 43, 2; viii. 7, 20; x. 4, 13; xi. 6, 15; xix. 28, 1, etc.; Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 5, 1, 4, etc.

³ Av. vi. 43.

⁴ xix. 32, 2. Cf. xix. 30.

⁵ Av. vi. 43, 2.

⁶ Av. xix. 32, 1.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 70.

Darvi, or Darvi, properly denotes a 'ladle,' in which sense it is found in the Rigveda 1 and later. 2 But the word also means a serpent's 'hood' in the Atharvaveda,3 though Zimmer regards it as the name of a serpent.

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1 v. 6, 9; x. 105, 10.
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Darvida, the 'woodpecker,' is mentioned as a victim at the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Yajurveda. 1 Cf. Dārvāghāta.

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 13, 1; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 14, 15; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 3. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 93. The St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., suggests 'wood- | Society, 5, part ii.

piercer' (dāru-vidha) as the literal sense. On the etymology, cf. F. W. Thomas's article, 'The D-Suffix,' p. 121, in Transactions of the Cambridge Philological

Darśa ('appearance') denotes the new moon day,1 usually in opposition to the day of full moon (pūrṇa-māsa).2 Most frequently the word occurs in the compound3 darśa-pūrṇamāsau, 'new and full moon,' the days of special ritual importance.4 The order of the first two words here is worthy of note, for it distinctly suggests, though it does not conclusively prove, that the month was reckoned from new moon to new moon, not from full moon to full moon. See Masa.

Brāhmaṇa, i. 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 5, 11, etc.

4 Hillebrandt, Das altindische Neuund Vollmondsopfer, Jena, 1880; Rituallitteratur, 111-114; Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 439.

Daśa-gva appears in one hymn of the Rigveda¹ as the name of a person who was assisted by Indra. The other references in that work,2 however, clearly show the mythical character of the Dasagvas, and of any individual among them.

² Av. iii. 10, 7; iv. 14, 7; ix. 6, 17, etc. 3 x, 1, 13. See Whitney, Translation

of the Atharvaveda, 577; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 153.

⁴ Altindisches Leben, 95, where he takes Karikrata also as the name of a snake.

¹ Av. vii. 81, 3. 4; Taittirīya Brāhmana, i. 2, 1, 14; Satapatha Brahmana, xi. 2, 2, I.

² Taittirīya Samhitā, iii. 4, 4, 1, etc.

³ Ibid., i. 6, 7, 1; 9, 3; ii. 5, 6, 1; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, ii, 2, 2, 1; Aitareya

Navagvas in i. 62, 4; iii. 39, 5; iv. 51, 4; | p. 144 (C).

v. 29, 12; x. 62, 6, and alone in ii. 34 ² They are mentioned with the 12. See Macdonell, Vedic Mythology,

342 THE RIGVEDA-A HERO-THE NUMBER TEN [Daśatayī

Daśatayī in the Nirukta¹ frequently denotes the text of the Rigveda as divided into ten Maṇḍalas.

1 vii. S. 20; xi. 16; xii. 40.

Daśa-dyu appears twice in the Rigveda¹ as the name of a hero, but nothing can be made out regarding him or his relation to Vetasu, who is mentioned in one passage along with him.

1 i. 33, 14; vi. 26, 4. Cf. Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 55, 328.

Dasan, 'ten,' forms the basis of the numerical system of the Vedic Indians, as it does of the Aryan people generally. But it is characteristic of India 1 that there should be found at a very early period long series of names for very high numerals, whereas the Aryan knowledge did not go beyond 1,000. the Vājasanevi Samhitā2 the list is 1; 10; 100; 1,000; 10,000 (ayuta); 100,000 (niyuta); 1,000,000 (prayuta); 10,000,000 (arbuda); 100,000,000 (nyarbuda); 1,000,000,000 (samudra); 10,000,000,000 (madhya); 100,000,000,000 (anta); 1,000,000,000,000 (parārdha). In the Kāthaka Samhitā3 the list is the same, but niyuta and prayuta exchange places, and after nyarbuda a new figure (badva) intervenes, thus increasing samudra to 10,000,000,000, and so on. The Taittiriya Samhitā has in two places 4 exactly the same list as the Vājasaneyi Samhitā. The Maitrāyaņī Samhita has the list ayuta, prayuta, then ayuta again, arbuda, nyarbuda, samudra, madhya, anta, parardha. The Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa⁶ has the Vājasaneyi list up to nyarbuda inclusive, then follow nikharvaka, badva, aksita, and apparently go= 1,000,000,000,000. The Jaiminīya Upanişad Brāhmaņa7 list

¹ Thibaut, Astronomie, Astrologic und Mathematik, 70

² xvii. 2 ct seq. Cf. xxii. 34; Satapatha Brāhmana, ix. 1, 2, 16.

³ xxxix. 6. In xvii. 10 the number badva disappears, and the list corresponds with that of the Vājasaneyi Samhitā, except for the fact that niyuta and prayuta change places.

⁴ iv. 4, 11, 4; vii. 2, 20, I.

⁵ ii. 8, 14.

⁶ xvii. 14, 2.

⁷ i. 10, 28, 29. Cf. Aitareya Āranyaka, v. 3, 2; Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 30, n. 2; Keith, Aitareya Āranyaka, 293, 294.

replaces nikharvaka by nikharva, badva by padma, and ends with akşitir vyomāntah. The Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra8 continues the series after nyarbuda with nikharvāda, samudra, salila, antya, ananta (=10 billions).

But beyond ayuta9 none of these numbers has any vitality. Budva, indeed, occurs in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,10 but it cannot there have any precise numerical sense; 11 and later on the names of these high numerals are very much confused.

An arithmetical progression of some interest is found in the Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa,12 where occurs a list of sacrificial gifts in which each successive figure doubles the amount of the preceding one. It begins with dvādaśa-mānam hiranyam, 'gold to the value of 12' (the unit being uncertain, but probably the Kṛṣṇala¹³), followed by 'to the value of 24, 48, 96, 192, 384, 768, 1,536, 3072,' then dve astāvimsati-sata-māne, which must mean 2×128×24 (the last unit being not a single māna, but a number of 24 $m\bar{a}nas$) = 6,144, then 12,288, 24,576, 40,152, 98,304, 196,608, 393,216. With these large numbers may be compared the minute theoretical subdivision of time found in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa,14 where a day is divided into 15 muhūrtas—1 muhūrta = 15 ksipras, 1 ksipra = 15 ctarhis, I etarhi = 15 idanis, I idani = 15 pranas. The Śankhayana Śrauta Sūtra 15 has a decimal division of the day into 15 muhūrtas— I muhūrta = 10 nimesas, I nimesa = 10 dhvamsis.

Few fractions are mentioned in Vedic literature. Ardha, $p\bar{a}da$, $\acute{a}pha$, and $kal\bar{a}$ denote $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{8}$, $\frac{1}{16}$ respectively, but only

⁸ xv. II, 7.

⁹ Cf. Rv. iii. 6, 15; viii. 1, 5; 2, 41; 21, 18; 34, 15; 46, 22; Av. viii. 2, 21; 8, 7; x. 8, 24; Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa, xix. 13, 6; xxi. 18, 3, etc. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 348, considers that it has not any definite sense in the Rigveda; this cannot be either proved or disproved. The Rv. has the phrase śatā sahasrāni several times (iv. 32, 18; viii. 32, 18, etc.) = 100,000; and ayuta may easily have been already specialized, though it may also have retained a vague sense.

¹⁰ vii. 21. 23.

¹¹ Weber, Indische Streifen, 1, 96.

¹² xviii. 3. Cf. Lātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, viii. 10, 1 et seq.; Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xxii. 9, 1-6.

¹³ Cf. Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xxii. 9, 1; Weber, op. cit., 102, 103.

¹⁴ xii. 3, 2, 1 et seq. Cf. also Taittiriya Brāhmana, iii. 10, 1, 1, where a series of names of the divisions of the muhūrta is given, apparently as alternatives, not as successive stages (idānīm, tadānīm, etarhi, kşipram, ajiram, āśuh (? āśu), nimesah, phanah, dravan, atidravan, tvaran, tvaramānalı, āsulı, āsīyān, javaiı). See Weber, op. cit., 92-94.

¹⁵ xiv. 75 et seq. Cf. Sankhayana Āraņyaka, vii. 20.

the first two are common. *Tṛtīya* denotes the third part. ¹⁶ In the Rigveda ¹⁷ Indra and Viṣnu are said to have divided 1,000 by 3, though how they did so is uncertain. *Tri-pād* denotes 'three-fourths.' ¹⁸

There is no clear evidence that the Indians of the Vedic period had any knowledge of numerical figures, though it is perfectly possible.¹⁹

16 Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 5, 1, 4;
 v. 2, 6, 2; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 1,
 6, 1; 7, 1, 2; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa,
 iii. 8, 4, 4, etc.

17 vi. 69, 8 = Av. vii. 44, 1 = Taittirīya Samhitā, iii. 2, 11, 2; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vi. 15; Śatapatha Brāhmana, iii. 3, 1, 13.

18 Rv. x. 90, 4.

19 If asta-karni means in Rv. x. 62, 7, having the figure 8 marked on the

ears' of cattle, then the mention of numerical signs would be certain. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 234, 235, 348. But this is doubtful. See Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, p. 309, n. 10.

Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, p. 308; Weber, Indische Streifen, 1, 90-103; Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquitics, 349; Kaegi, Rigveda, n. 65; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 16, 275 et seq.

Daśa-puruṣaṃ-rājya, occurring in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,¹ doubtless² means 'sovereignty inherited through ten ancestors,' a striking case of hereditary rule. Weber³ once rendered the word as the 'kingdom⁴ of Daśapuru,' comparing the Daśapura of Kālidāsa's Meghadūta⁵ and the Daśārṇa of the 'middle country.'

1 xii. 9, 3, 1. 3.

² Cf. Asvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, ix. 3; Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 14, 18. So tri-puruṣa, 'three generations,' Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 7. The St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., and Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 269, have the correct rendering. 3 Indische Studien, 1, 209. But see 10, 75, n. 1.

⁴ This would be sāmrājya, which is always spelt with m, not m; cf. Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, 75, 3.

⁵ i. 48.

Daśa-māsya, 'ten months old,' describes in the Rigveda¹ and later² the embryo immediately before birth. See Māsa.

1 v. 78, 7. 8.

2 Av. i. 11, 6; iii. 23, 2. There are several references in Vedic literature

to birth in the tenth month, as Rv. x. 184, 3, etc.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 366; Weber, Naxatra, 2, 313, n. 1.

Daśamī denotes in the Atharvaveda¹ and the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa² the period of life between 90 and 100 years, which the Rigveda³ calls the daśama yuga, 'the tenth stage of life.' Longevity seems not to have been rare among the Vedic Indians, for the desire to live a 'hundred autumns' (śaradaḥ śatam) is constantly expressed.⁴ Dīrghatamas is said to have lived 100 years,⁵ and Mahidāsa Aitareya is credited with 116.⁶ Onesikritos⁷ reported that they sometimes lived 130 years, a statement with which corresponds the wish expressed in the Jātaka⁸ for a life of 120 years. Probably the number was always rather imaginary than real, but the comparative brevity of modern life in India⁹ may be accounted for by the cumulative effect of fever, which is hardly known to the Rigveda. See Takman.

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3 i. 158, 6.
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Jaiminiya Upanişad Brāhmaņa, iv. 2, II; Keith, Aitareya Āranyaka, 17.

Daśa-vṛkṣa is the name of a tree, according to Roth, in the Atharvaveda. But Whitney treats the word as a mere adjective meaning 'of ten trees.'

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<sup>1</sup> St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. 3 T

<sup>2</sup> ii. 9, 1. 50.
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Daśa-vraja is the name of a protégé of the Aśvins in the Rigveda (viii. 8, 20; 49, 1; 50, 9).

Daśa-śipra is the name of a sacrificer mentioned in the Rigveda.¹

1 viii. 52, 2. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 163.

Daśā denotes the 'fringe' or 'border' of a garment (vāsah) in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.¹ The word also occurs in the compound daśā-pavitra,² which means 'a filtering cloth with a fringe.'

⁴ Rv. i. 89, 9; x. 18, 10, and passim. See Lanman, Sanskrit Reader, 384; Bloomfield, Atharvaveda, 62, 63.

⁵ Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka, ii. 17.

⁶ Chāndogya Upanisad, iii. 16, 7;

⁷ In Strabo, p. 701.

⁸ Ed. Fausböll, ii. 16.

⁹ Indian Empire, 1, 513 et seq.

³ Translation of the Atharvaveda, 50.

¹ iii. 3, 2, 9, and often in the Sūtras. patha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 2, 2, 11. Cf. iv. 1,

² Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 32; Sata- | 1, 28.

Daśoni appears in one passage of the Rigveda¹ apparently as a favourite of Indra and as opposed to the Panis, who fell in hundreds for his benefit. The view of Ludwig² that he is here the priest of the Panis is very improbable. Elsewhere his name is simply mentioned.³ See also Daśonya.

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1 vi. 20, 4. 8.
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Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 92, n. 1; Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 55, 328.

Dasonya is the name of a sacrificer mentioned in the Rigveda¹ along with Dasasipra and others. Whether he is identical with Dasoni cannot be decided.

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1 viii. 52, 2. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 163.
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Dasonasi is the name of a kind of snake in the Atharvaveda. The reading of the Paippalada recension is Nasonasī.

1 x. 4, 17. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 95; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 577.

Dasyave vṛka, 'wolf to the Dasyu,' is the name of a man mentioned four times in the Rigveda.¹ In one hymn² he is called a Rṣi, but in two others³ he is clearly a prince victorious over the Dasyus, and a generous patron of the singer. It is hardly necessary to assume different persons,⁴ for the term Rṣi is not altogether inconsistent with royalty. He was son of Pūtakratu⁵ and Pūtakratā,⁶ his wife.

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<sup>1</sup> viii. 51, 2; 55, 1; 56, 1. 2.
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Dasyave saha is, according to Roth, the name of a man or a clan in the Rigveda. But he admits that the words may

² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 156; 5, 107.

³ x. 96, 12, where, however, the word may be merely an epithet of Soma.

² viii. 51.

³ viii. 55. 56.

⁴ Especially as the name occurs only in the small collection of Kānva hymns forming the Vālakhilya group in the eighth Mandala.

⁵ viii. 56, 2, Pautakrata. Cf. viii. 68,

⁶ viii. 56, 4.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 139, 164; 5, 552.

¹ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

be an epithet of Agni. This is the interpretation given to them by Oldenberg.³

3 Sacred Books of the East, 46, 33.

Dasyu, a word of somewhat doubtful origin, is in many passages of the Rigveda¹ clearly applied to superhuman enemies. On the other hand, there are several passages in which human foes, probably the aborigines, are thus designated. This may be regarded as certain in those passages where the Dasyu is opposed to the Āryan, who defeats him with the aid of the gods.2 The great difference between the Dasyus and the Aryans was their religion: the former are styled 'not sacrificing,' 'devoid of rites,' 'addicted to strange vows,' 'godhating,' and so forth.3 As compared with the Dasa, they are less distinctively a people: no clans (viśah) of the Dasyus are mentioned, and while Indra's dasyu-hatya, 'slaughter of the Dasyus,' is often spoken of, there is no corresponding use of dāsa-hatya. That the Dasyus were real people is, however, shown by the epitdet anas applied to them in one passage of the Rigveda.⁵ The sense of this word is not absolutely certain: the Pada text and Sāyana both take it to mean 'without face' (an-ās),6 but the other rendering, 'noseless' (a-nās), is quite possible,7

¹ i. 34, 7; 100, 18; ii. 13, 9, etc. See Macdonell, *Vedic Mythology*, pp. 157, 158.

² Rv. i. 51, 8; 103, 3; 117, 21; ii. 11, 18. 19; iii. 34, 9; vi. 18, 3; vii. 5, 6; x. 49, 3. Probably also in v. 70, 3; x. 83, 6, people are meant.

The Dasyu is called a-karman, 'riteless,' x. 22, 8; a-devayu, 'indifferent to the gods,' viii. 70, 11; a-brahman, 'without devotion,' iv. 16, 9; a-yajvan, 'not sacrificing,' viii. 70, 11; a-yajyu, id., vii. 6, 3; a-vraua, lawless,' i. 51, 8; 175, 3; vi. 14, 3; ix. 41, 2; anyavrata, 'following strange ordinances,' viii. 70, 11; deva-pīyu, 'reviling the gods,' Av. xii. 1, 37. It is impossible in all cases to be certain that people are meant.

4 Rv. i. 51, 5. 6; 103, 4; x. 95, 7; 99, 7; 105, 11. *Cf. dasyu-han*, 'Dasyuslaying,' i. 100, 12; vi. 45, 24; viii. 76,

11: 77. 3; x. 47, 4 (all of Indra); vi. 16, 15; viii. 39, 8 (of Agni), etc.

5 Rv. v. 29, 10.

6 This sense allows of two interpretations: 'misfeatured,' which seems that of Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., and Grassmann, Wörterbuch; or 'speechless' (that is, unable to speak the language of the Āryans), which is that of Bollensen, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 41, 496.

7 This view is supported by Megasthenes' report as to natives who were ἀστομοι: see Strabo, p. 711; Pliny, Nat. Hist., vii. 2, 18, cited by Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 430. See also Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 2, 109; 5, 95; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 3, 277; Knauer, Kuhn's Zeitschrift, 29, 52; Wackernagel, Altindische Gram-

matik, 2, 293 (accent).

and would accord well with the flat-nosed aborigines of the Dravidian⁸ type, whose language still persists among the Brahuis, who are found in the north-west. This interpretation would receive some support from Vrtra's being called 'broken-nosed' if this were a correct explanation of the obscure word rujānās.⁹

The other epithet of the Dasyus is mrdhra-vāc, which occurs with anās, 10 and which has been rendered 11 'of stammering, or unintelligible speech.' This version is by no means certain, and since the epithet is elsewhere 12 applied to Āryans, its correct meaning is more probably 'of hostile speech.'

Dasyu corresponds with the Iranian dashu, daqyu, which denotes a 'province.' Zimmer¹³ thinks that the original meaning was 'enemy,' whence the Iranians developed the sense of 'hostile country,' 'conquered country,' 'province,' while the Indians, retaining the signification of 'enemy,' extended it to include demon foes. Roth¹⁴ considers that the meaning of human enemy is a transfer from the strife of gods

8 The suggestion in the Indian Empire, 1, 390, that the modern Brahui type is the true Dravidian, while the modern Dravidian is the result of fusion with Muṇḍā-speaking tribes, would render this theory improbable. But it seems more probable that the Brahuis in speech preserve the tradition of Dravidian settlements in North India.

⁹ See Bloomfield, American Journal of Philology, 17, 415 (who takes rujānāh of Rv. i. 32, 8, as = rujāna-nāh); Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 31, 32 (who suggests as possible the analysis of the word as rujā-anāh). But ef. Lanman, Sanskrit Reader, 361, who suggests the emendation rujānah as nominative singular of the simple participle 'broken'; Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, p. 59, n. 1.

10 Rv. v. 29, 10.

11 Cf. Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 22, 393 et seq.

¹² The expression is used of the Āryan Pūrus in vii. 18, 13; of the Paņis

in vii. 6, 3; and of hostile persons in i. 174, 2; v. 32, 8; x. 23. 5. Roth, Erläuterungen zum Nirukta, 97, thinks the sense is 'of insulting speech,' and Zimmer, op. cit., 114, 115, strongly supports this view. But Hillebrandt, op. cit., 1, 89, 90, 114, prefers to see in it 'speaking an enemy's speech,' and thinks that the Purus were dialectically different from the Bharatas-a view which can be supported from the Satapatha Brāhmaņa, iii. 2, 1, 23. 24, where the Asuras say he 'lavo (= he 'rayo, 'ho, enemies,' in Sanskrit). See Muir, of. cit., 22, 114; Davidson, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 37, 23 (the Mahābhāsya version); Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 26, 31, n. 3. The word could thus apply to the Dasyus also, as the strange speech of the enemy could be either Āryan or aboriginal.

13 Op. cit., 110 et seq. So Macdonell. Vedic Mythology, p. 158.

14 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

and demons. Lassen 15 attempted to connect the contrast daqyu: dasyu with that of daeva: deva, and to see in it a result of the religious differences which, according to Haug's theory, had separated the Iranians and the Indians. The word may have originally meant 'ravaged land' 16 as a result of invasion; hence 'enemies' country,' then 'hostile people,' who as human foes were more usually called by the cognate name of Dasa.

Individual Dasyus are Cumuri, Sambara, Susna, etc.

In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa 17 the word has, as later, 18 the sense of uncivilized peoples generally.

15 Indische Alterthumskunde, 12, 633 ct seq. This theory is now generally discredited. Cf. Justi, Göttingische Gelehrte Anzeigen, 1866, 1446 et seq.; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 1, 142; Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 162 et seq.; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 156.

16 Both this word and Dasa appear to be derived from the root das, which, according to Whitney, Roots, means

'lay waste'; but, according to Roth, 'suffer want,' 'waste away.'

17 vii. 18, where the descendants of Viśvāmitra are called dasyūnām bhūyisthah; Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 26, 7.

18 Manu, v. 131; x. 32. 45; Zimmer, op. cit., 118.

Cf. Hillebrandt, op. cit., 3, 276 et seq.; Zimmer, op. cit., 101 et seq.

Dākṣāyaṇa, 'descendant of Dakṣa.' The Dākṣāyaṇas are mentioned in the Atharvaveda and the Yajurveda Samhitās1 as having given gold to Śatānīka. In the Śatapatha Brāhmana² the word is actually used to denote 'gold.' The Dākṣāyaṇas appear there 3 as a race of princes who, because of performing a certain rite, prospered down to the time of the Brahmana itself.

1 Av. i. 35, 1. 2; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxxiv. 51. 52; Katha, cited by von Schroeder, Tübinger Katha-Handschriften, 36; Khila, iv. 7, 7. 8.

2 vi. 7, 4, 2: dākṣāyaṇa-hasta, 'goldenhanded.' Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 41, 283, n. 2, seems unnecessarily doubtful as to this.

3 ii. 4, 4, 6. Cf. Aitareya Brāhmaņa, iii. 40.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 224; 4, 358; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 195; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 35; Lévi, La Doctrine du Sacrifice, 138.

Dātyauha, a 'gallinule,' is mentioned in the list of victims at the Asvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Yajurveda.1 The

Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 6; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 25. 39. Pāņini,

1 Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 17, 1; | vii. 3, 1, derives the word from ditya-vah. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, or.

word is clearly a variant of $d\bar{a}ty\bar{u}ha$, which occurs in the epics and law books.

Dātra ('cutter'), denoting a 'sickle,' is mentioned in the Rigveda.¹ Cows 'with sickle-shaped marks on their ears' (dātra-karīyaḥ) are referred to in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā.² Otherwise the expression is only found later, occurring in the Sūtra and epic literature.³ See also Sṛṇi.

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1 viii. 78, 10; Nirukta, ii. 1. 3 Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 86.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 238.
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Dātreya is the patronymic of Arāḍa Śaunaka in the Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa.¹ Possibly Dārteya, 'descendant of Dṛti,' should be read,² but the word may have the same derivation as the latter form with metathesis.

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1 Indische Studien, 4, 373. 2 Cf. St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
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Dādhīca, 'descendant of Dadhyanc,' is the patronymic of Cyavana in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xiv. 6).

r. Dāna, 'giving,' 'gift,' is a word of frequent occurrence in the Rigveda, especially in the Dāna-stutis¹ ('Praises of Gifts') of generous patrons (see Dakṣiṇā). One of the characteristics of the Brāhmaṇa is his right to receive gifts, which it is obligatory on the other castes to present.² The gift of a daughter (kanyāyā dānam) was a form of marriage³ (see Vivāha), because in it the girl was 'given' away by her father or brother.

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<sup>1</sup> The term seems first to occur in the Brhaddevatā, vi. 45. 92, and in Similar works.

<sup>2</sup> Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5, 7, 1; Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 47-6:.

<sup>3</sup> Nirukta, iii. 4.
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2. Dāna ('distribution')¹ seems in several passages of the Rigveda² to be a designation of the sacrificial feast to which

¹ From dā, 'divide.'

² i. 55, 7; 48, 4; 180, 5; viii. 46, 26; | 60, 8; 99, 4, etc. Cf., however, Pischel Vedische Studien, 1, 100.

the god is invited (cf. δαίς, δαίτη). In one passage3 Sāyaṇa thinks that it denotes the mada-jalani, 'drops of water falling from the temples of a rutting elephant,'4 but this is doubtful. In another passage⁵ Roth thinks that 'pasture land' is meant.

3 Rv. viii. 33, 8; Ludwig, Transla- | derived from da, 'divide,' meaning tion of the Rigveda, 5, 157.

4 Dana in this sense, so common in the post-Vedic language, is probably originally 'secretion.'

5 ii. 13, 7.

3. Dana is in three passages of the Rigveda held by Roth to designate a chariot horse.

1 v. 27, 5; vii. 18, 23; viii. 46, 24. | adequate version, 'horses' being under-But in all these cases 'gifts' seems an stood.

Dāman, a 'rope' or 'girdle,'1 is often mentioned in the Rigveda and later.2 Reference is made to the rope of the sacrificial horse,3 as well as to the practice of tying calves with ropes.4 The word occurs in the sense of a 'band' of horse hair in the Satapatha Brāhmaņa.5

1 Originally 'bond,' from da, 'bind.' ² Rv. i. 56, 3, etc.; Av. vi. 63, 1; 103, 2; vii. 103, 1. 2; Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 4, 13, 1, etc.

3 Rv. i. 162, 8. 4 Rv. ii. 28, 7.

5 v. 3, 1, 10. Cf. Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 41, 62, n. 2.

Daya occurs in the Rigveda¹ only in the sense of 'reward' of exertion (śrama), but later it means 'inheritance'—that is, a father's property which is to be divided among his sons either during his lifetime or after his death. The passages all negative the idea that the property of the family was legally family property: it is clear that it was the property of the head of the house, usually the father, and that the other members of the family only had moral claims upon it which the father could ignore, though he might be coerced by his sons if they were physically stronger.

Thus Manu is said in the Taittirīya Samhitā2 to have divided his property among his sons. He omitted Nabhanedistha,

Texts, 12, 191-194; Lévi, La Doctrine du 1 x. 114, 10. 2 iii. 1, 9, 4 et seq. Cf. Muir, Sanskrit | Sacrifice, 67, 68.

whom he afterwards taught how to appease the Angirases, and to procure cows. This is a significant indication that the property he divided was movable property, rather than land (Urvarā). In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa³ the division is said to have been made during Manu's lifetime by his sons, who left only their aged father to Nābhānediṣṭha. According to the Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa,4 again, four sons divided the inheritance while their old father, Abhipratarin, was still alive. It is. of course, possible to regard Daya as denoting the heritable property of the family, but the developed patria potestas of the father, which was early very marked, as shown by the legend of Sunahsepa, is inconsistent with the view that the sons were legally owners with their father, unless and until they actually insisted on a division of the property.5 Probablythere is no evidence of any decisive character-land was not divided at first, but no doubt its disposal began to follow the analogy of cattle and other movable property as soon as the available supply of arable land became limited.

As for the method of division, it is clear from the Taittirīya Saṃhitā⁶ that the elder son was usually preferred; perhaps

4 iii. 156 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 26, 61, 62).

5 The same question has been raised as to the origin of English or Teutonic property in land generally. Against any idea even of family ownership in a strict sense of the word, see Fustel de Coulanges, Recherches sur quelques Problèmes d'Histoire, 322 et seq.; Ashley, in Fustel de Coulanges, Origin of Property in Land, xvi xxi; Pollock and Maitland, History of English Law, 2, 237 et seq. The older view, which accepted family and communal ownership, represented in different forms by Maine (Village Communities in the East and West), Stubbs, Green, and others, is defended in a new form by Vinogradoff, Villanage in England. See also Keith, Journal of the African Society, 6, 201 et seq. Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 93-96, does not accept the communal ownership of land,

but, ibid., So, is inclined to believe in the joint ownership of a family. He admits that this is inconsistent with the strict rule of patria potestas, which still exists in Bengal; Baden Powell, Village Communities in India, 133 et seq., doubts the existence in early India of such a patria potestas. Butthefacts seem clearly to show that there was such a power, and that the father owned the property. His sons, as they grew up, came to claim the property, and he might have to divide it; hence the idea naturally developed that every child on birth had a legal share in the property. No doubt also from the first the right to part with land was one which grown-up sons and the rest of the community could object to, once the village had acquired a fixed existence. This would account adequately for the later system. Cf. also pp. 100, n. 19; 336, n. 7, and Rajanya. 6 ii. 5, 2, 7.

³ v. 14.

this was always the case after death. During the father's lifetime another might be preferred, as appears from a passage of the Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa.7 Women were excluded from partition or inheritance, according to the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa8 and the Nirukta.9 They were, no doubt, supported by their brothers; but if they had none they might be reduced to prostitution.10 Detailed rules of inheritance appear in the Sūtras.11

The heir is called Dāyāda, 12 'receiver $(\bar{a}-da)$ of inheritance.'

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7 xvi. 4, 4.
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patha Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 2, 22; iii. 2, 1, 18. For the Sūtra rules, see Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 80 et seg.

12 Satapatha Brāhmana, xii. 4, 3, 9; Nirukta, iii. 4; metaphorically, Av. v. 18, 6, 14,

Dāra, 'wife,' is found in the Sūtras (usually as a plural masculine), and once (as a singular) in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upanisad.1

1 vi. 4, 12 (where dvarena is a varia | Verwandtschaftsnamen, 415, 416, who lectio; see St. Petersburg Dictionary, ignores the Brhadaranyaka passage. s.v.), Cf. Delbrück, Die indogermanischen

Daru, 'wood,' is frequently mentioned in the Rigveda and later,1 denoting amongst other things the pole of a chariot,2 logs as fuel,3 the wooden parts of a car,4 possibly wooden stocks,5 and so forth.

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1 Rv. vi. 3, 4; x. 145, 4, etc.; Av.
x. 4, 3; Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 5, 8, 3,
etc.
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3 Rv. viii. 102, 20.

4 Satapatha Brāhmana, vi. 6, 2, 14. 5 Av. vi. 121, 2. But this is doubtful.

Cf. Tāvu and Drupada.

Dardha-jayanti, 'descendant of Drdhajayanta,' is the patronymic of Vaipascita Gupta Lauhitya and of Vaipascita Drdhajayanta Lauhitya in the Jaiminīya Upanisad Brāhmana (iii. 42, I).

Dārteya, 'descendant of Drti.' The Dārteyas are mentioned as authorities on sacrificial matters in the Kāthaka Samhitā1 and the Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa.2

1 xxxi. 2 (Indische Studien, 3, 473).

2 xxv. 3, 6.

⁸ iv. 4, 2, 13.

⁹ iii. 4. 10 Cf. Strl.

¹¹ Inheritance is also alluded to in the Aitareya Brāhmana, vii. 17; Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 27, 3; Śata-

² Rv. x. 102, 8.

Dārbhya, 'descendant of Darbha,' is mentioned in a verse of the Rigveda.¹ Roth² identifies him with Śyāvāśva, but the Bṛhaddevatā³ with Rathavīti. The same patronymic is frequently⁴ connected with Keśin, and is also applied to Rathaprota.⁵ See also Dālbhya.

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1 v. 61, 17.

2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
3 v. 50, 77.

4 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 6, 2, 3;

Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhita
Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇ
Die Sagenstoffe des Rġ

5 Maitrāyaṇī Saṃ
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Maitrāyanī Samhitā, i. 4, 12; 6, 5; Kauşītaki Brāhmaņa, vii. 4. Cf. Sieg. Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 62, n. 2.

5 Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 1, 3,

Dārv-āghāta, the 'woodpecker,' is included in the list of sacrificial victims at the Aśvamedha, or 'horse sacrifice,' in the Yajurveda.¹

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 15, 1; saneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 35. Cf. Zimmer, Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 16; Vāja- Altindisches Leben, 92.

Dārv-āhāra, a 'gatherer of wood,' is included in the list of victims at the Purusamedha, or 'human sacrifice,' in the Yajurveda.¹

1 Vājasaneyī Samhitā, xxx. 12; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 8, 1.

Dālbhi, 'descendant of Dalbha,' is the patronymic of Vaka in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā (x. 6).

Dālbhya, 'descendant of Dalbha,' is a variant of Dārbhya. It is the patronymic of (a) Keśin in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa;¹ (b) Caikitāyana in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad² and the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa;³ (c) Vaka in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad⁴ and the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā.⁵

1 xiii. 10, 8. Cf. the Itihāsa, reported by Ṣaḍgurusiṣya (Sarvānukramaṇī, ed. Macdonell, 11δ). The St. Petersburg Dictionary quotes the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa, vii. 4, for Dālbhya (but also for Dārbhya, which is the reading of Lindner's edition).

² i. 8, 1.

³ i. 38, 1; 56, 3.

⁴ i. 2, 13; 12, 1. 3.

⁵ xxx. 2, where Dālbhya is read, not Dālbhi, as stated in the St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. The Kapiṣṭhala Saṃhitā, xlvi. 5, has Darbhasya. Dālbhi is found, however, in Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, x. 6.

Dāva, 'forest fire,' is mentioned in the Atharvaveda1 and the Satapatha Brāhmaņa.2 In the latter work such fires are referred to as occurring in spring. According to Sieg,3 a hymn of the Rigveda⁴ describes a forest fire. Watchers were employed to guard against surprise from such conflagrations $(d\bar{a}va-pa).5$

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1 vii. 45, 2.
2 xi. 2, 7, 32.
3 Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 44 et tirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 11, 1.
seq.
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Dāva-su Āngirasa, a seer of Sāmans, or chants, is mentioned in the Pañcavimśa Brāhmana.1

1 XXV. 5, 12. 14. Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 160.

Dāśa, 'fisherman,' is mentioned in the list of victims at the Purusamedha, or 'human sacrifice,' in the Yajurveda. 1 Cf. Dhaivara.

1 Vājasanevi Samhitā, xxx. 16; Tait- | tirīva Brāhmana, iii. 4, 12, 1. Weber, Indische Streifen, 1, 81, renders the word by Fischerknecht, perhaps regarding it

as equivalent to dasa, 'servant,' Cf. Manu, x. 34; St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. Dāśa, 2. 3.

Dāśataya, 'belonging to the (Rigveda text) divided into ten (books),' is an epithet of Adhyāya, 'section,' in the Nidāna Sūtra.1 The feminine form of the word is also found in the Kausītaki Brāhmana² and later.³

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1 ii. 11 (Indische Studien, 1, 45).
<sup>2</sup> viii. 7.
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xvii. 30; Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xii. 2, 16. 22, etc.; Baudhāyana Śrauta

Prātisākhya, xvi. 54; Sūtra, xxvi. 13; xxvii. 4, etc. 3 Rgveda

Dāśa-rājña is the name in the Rigveda¹ and the Atharvaveda2 of Sudas' famous 'battle with the ten kings.' It is somewhat difficult to make out exactly who the kings were (see Turvasa), but the number is probably a round one, and cannot be pressed. The actual battle hymn3 does not contain the word, and the passages in which it is found may reasonably be considered late.4

^c Cf. for the late date of vii. 33. Bergaigne, L'histoire de la Samhita, 38, 72; Oldenberg, Prolegomena, 198, 200,

265, n. 1; Arnold, Vedic Metre, 309; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 2, 130, opposes this view, but not convincingly.

Dāśarma appears in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā¹ as a teacher and a contemporary of Āruṇi.

1 vii. 6. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 3, 472.

Dāsa, like Dasyu, sometimes denotes enemies of a demoniac character in the Rigveda,¹ but in many passages² the word refers to human foes of the Āryans. The Dāsas are described as having forts (puraḥ),³ and their clans (viśaḥ) are mentioned.⁴ It is possible that the forts, which are called 'autumnal' (śāradīḥ),⁵ may be mythical, but it is not essential, for the epithet may allude to their being resorted to in the autumn season. The Dāsa colour (Varṇa)⁶ is probably an allusion to the black skin of the aborigines, which is also directly mentioned.¹ The aborigines (as Dasyus) are called anās, 'noseless' (?),⁶ and mṛdhra-vāc, 'of hostile speech,'⁰ and are probably meant by the phallus-worshippers (śiśna-devāḥ, 'whose deity is a phallus') of the Rigveda.¹⁰ It is significant that constant

1 Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 157.

² Cf. Rv. v. 34, 6; vi. 22, 10; 33, 3; 60, 6; vii. 83, 1; x. 38, 3; 69, 6;

83, 1; Av. v. 11, 3.

³ ii. 20, 8 (called āyasīḥ, 'made of iron'); i. 103, 3; iii. 12, 6; iv. 32, 10. They are called śāradīḥ, 'autumnal,' in i. 131, 4; 174, 2; vi. 20, 10. Cf. also dchyaḥ, 'ramparts,' in vi. 47, 2.

4 ii. 11, 4; iv. 28, 4; vi. 25, 2.

5 Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology,

р. 60.

6 ii. 12, 4; Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, viii. 25, 6. Cf. Rv. i. 101, 1; 130, 8; ii. 20, 7; iv. 16, 13; vi. 47, 21; vii. 5, 3. The Arya colour is mentioned in iii. 34, 9, and the Dāsa is contrasted with the Varṇa (of the singers) in i. 104, 2. The

'white-hued (śvitnya) friends' who, in i. 100, 18, aid in the conquest of the Dasyu and Simyu are doubtless Āryans. In the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 30, the day and night (ahorātre) are paralleled with the Śūdrāryau—that is, probably with the Āryan and Śūdra (the compound is not to be taken as giving the words in the correct order; cf. Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, 268). See also Muir, Sanshrit Texts, 12, 140; Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 10, 11.

7 kṛṣṇā tvac, 'black skin,' i. 130, 8; ix. 41, 1.

8 Cf. Dasyu, notes 6, 7.

9 v. 29, 10. See Dasyu; Geldner, Rigveda, Glossar, 138.

10 vii. 21, 5; x. 99, 3. Cf. Macdonell, op. cit., p. 155.

reference is made to the differences in religion between Ārya and Dāsa or Dasyu.¹¹

Since the Dāsas were in many cases reduced to slavery, the word Dāsa has the sense of 'slave' in several passages of the Rigveda. Dāsī, the feminine, always has this sense from the Atharvaveda onwards. Aboriginal women were, no doubt, the usual slaves, for on their husbands being slain in battle they would naturally have been taken as servants. They would sometimes also become concubines; thus Kavaṣa was taunted with being the son of a female slave (dāsyāḥ putraḥ) in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa. 14

Ludwig 15 considers that in some passages 16 Dāsa is applied, in the sense of 'enemy,' to Āryan foes, but this is uncertain. Zimmer 17 and Meyer 18 think that Dāsa 19 originally meant 'enemy' in general, later developing in Iran into the name of the Dahae 20 of the Caspian steppes, and in India into a designation of the aborigines. On the other hand, Hillebrandt 21 argues that, as the Dāsas and the Paṇis are mentioned together, 22 they must be deemed to be closely related tribes, identifying

11 Rv. i. 33, 4. 5; iv. 16, 9; v. 7, 10; 42, 9; vi. 14, 3; viii. 70, 10; x. 22, 7. S, etc.

12 vii. 86, 7; viii. 56, 3; x. 62, 10. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., 2, suggests that in viii. 46, 32, the word dāsān, 'slaves,' should be read in place of dāse, qualifying Balbūtha. Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 117, quotes the passage to indicate the admixture of Āryan and Dāsa blood. See also Av. iv. 9, 8; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, vii. 24, 2. It is uncertain whether dāsa-pravarga, as an epithet of rayi, 'wealth,' in Rv. i. 92, 8, means 'consisting of troops of slaves.' Geldner, Rigveda, Glossar, 82, so takes the expression in i. 158, 5.

13 Av. v. 22, 6; xii. 3, 13; 4, 9; Chāndogya Upanişad, v. 13, 2; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 1, 10 (Mādhyaṇdina=2, 7 Kāṇva). Zimmer, 107, sees this sense in vadhū in Rv. viii. 19, 36. See also Vadhūmant.

14 ii. 19; Kauşītaki Brāhmaņa, xii. 3.

15 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 209. 16 See i. 158, 5; ii. 13, 8; iv. 30,

14. 15; vi. 20, 10; vii. 99, 5; x. 49, 6. 7. None of these passages need certainly be so taken.

17 Altindisches Leben, 110 et seq.

18 Geschichte des Altertums, 1, 515.

¹⁹ If derived from das in the sense of 'lay waste' (Whitney, Roots), the original meaning would have been

'devastator,' 'ravager.'

The Dahae may have been closely allied in race and language with the Iranians, but this is not very clearly proved. Cf. E. Kuhn in Kuhn's Zeitschrift, 28, 214; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologic, 1, 95. The possibility or probability of mixture with Mongolian blood is always present. So Zimmer, op. cit., 112, calls the Daoi or Daai of Herodotus, i. 126, a Turanian tribe.

21 Op. cit., 1, 94.

22 Rv. v. 34, 6, 7; vii. 6, 3 (Dasyu and Paņi together); Av. v. 11, 6.

the Panis with the Parnians and the Dasas of the Rigveda with the Dahae. This view, of course, necessitates a transfer of the scenes of the Rigveda, where Dasas are prominent, and especially those in which Divodasa—'the heavenly Dasa'-plays an important part,23 to the far west. Hillebrandt justifies this by regarding the scene of the sixth book of the Rigveda as quite different from that of the seventh and third, in which Sudās, the Bharatas, Vasistha, and Viśvāmitra appear. The Sarasvatī of the sixth book he locates in Arachosia, that of the seventh in the 'Middle Country.' It is, however, extremely doubtful whether this theory can be upheld. That Divodasa should have been a Dasa, and yet have fought against other Dāsas, is not in itself likely, especially when his son Sudās appears as a protagonist of Āryan civilization. It also seems unreasonable to seek in Arachosia for the river Sarasvatī. which it is natural to locate in the 'Middle Country.'

The wealth of the Dāsas was no doubt considerable,²⁴ but in civilization there is no reason to suppose that they were ever equal to the invaders.²⁵ Leading Dāsas were Ilībiśa, Cumuri and Dhuni, Pipru, Varcin, Śambara. For names of aboriginal tribes, see Kirāta, Kīkaṭa, Caṇḍāla, Parṇaka, Śiṃyu.

23 Op. cit., 1, 96 ct seq. He argues that Dāsa occurs only four times in Maṇḍala vii., but eight times in vi., and that similarly Sambara, the Dāsa, is mentioned six times in vi., but only twice in vii. But Divodāsa much more probably means, as Oldenberg interprets the name, 'the servant of heaven.' See his Religion des Veda, 155, n. 1; Bergaigne, Religion Védique, 2, 209; below, p. 363, n. 11.

²⁴ Cf. Rv. i. 176, 4; iv. 30, 13; viii, 40, 6; x. 69, 5; Av. vii, 90, 2.

²⁵ Cf. Rv. ii. 12, 11; iv. 30, 14; vi. 26, 5, whence it appears that the Dāsas were often dwellers in mountains, a natural refuge for beaten tribes.

Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 3, 269-275, 368; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 207-213; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 101-118; Weber, Indische Studien, 18, 35 (who derives dāsa from dā, 'bind'), 254; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 2, 359 et seq.; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 3, 96.

Dāsa-veśa, occurring only once in the Rigveda, probably designates a Dāsa named Veśa. Sāyaṇa's interpretation of the word as 'destruction of foes' can hardly be correct.

¹ ii. 13, 8. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 209.

Dāsya occurs once in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (iv. 2, 30 Mādhyaṃdina=23 Kāṇva) in the sense of 'slavery.'

Ditya-vāh, m.; Dityauhī, f., 'a two-year-old bull or cow,' is mentioned in the later Samhitās and the Brāhmaņas.¹

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 3, 3, 1; | xviii. 26; xxviii. 25; Pancavimša Brāhv. 6, 15, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xiv. 10; | maṇa, xxi. 1, etc.

Didyu, Didyut, both denote in the Rigveda 'missile,' 'arrow,' whether divine or human.

1 Didyu: i. 71, 5; iv. 41, 4; vii. 56, 9; Rv. i. 66, 7; v. 86, 3; vii. 25, 1, etc.; 85, 2, etc.; Av. i. 2, 3; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, ii. 20; x. 17, etc. Didyut:

Didhiṣu in the Rigveda denotes a 'wooer.' It is applied¹ to the relative, probably brother-in-law,² who takes the place of the husband at the funeral rite, and who, as in the Hebraic levirate, is to beget a child by the brother's wife if there is no son.³ Hillebrandt⁴ and Lanman⁵ consider that the word originally meant only 'wooer,' and applied to the king who, after the chief queen had lain beside the dead victim in the Puruṣamedha or 'human sacrifice,' claimed her again; but this view is hardly plausible.⁶ The term is also applied to the god Pūṣan² as the wooer of his mother, apparently Sūryā.Ց

1 x. 18, 18 = Av. xviii. 3, 2 (where didhişos is merely a bad reading)=
Taittirīya Āranyaka, vi. 1, 3.

² Asvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iv. 2, 18, where are mentioned the brother-in-law (devr), a representative of the husband (there is nothing to show whether he is identical with the preceding or not), a pupil, or an aged servant (jarad-dāsa).

³ Cf. Rv. x. 40, 2; Kaegi, Der Rigveda, n. 51.

4 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 40, 708 et seq.

5 Sanskrit Reader, 385.

6 See Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 848, 849; Keith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1907, 946.

7 vi. 55, 5.

8 Cf. Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1, 21; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 35.

Cf. Geldner, Rigveda, Kommentar, 154.

Didhiṣū-pati occurs in the Kāṭhaka¹ and Kapiṣṭhala Saṃ-hitās,² as well as in the Āpastamba,³ Gautama,⁴ and Vasiṣṭha

¹ xxxi. 7, quoted in Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 579.

² xlvii. 7, quoted ibid., 579, 580.

³ ii. 5, 12, 22.

⁴ xv. 16.

Dharma Sūtras,5 in lists of people who have committed sin (enas). The traditional rendering is 'husband of a woman married a second time'; Manu's seems to apply the term to the brother-in-law who is 'married' to his sister-in-law after his brother's death for the purpose of begetting a child, if he displays conjugal affection to her (anurajyate kāmataḥ).8 This sense would be possible, since Didhisu denotes a 'wooer,' and a widow could be regarded as a 'wooer' when able to control her own choice of a spouse. But another tradition holds that Didhişū means the elder sister whose younger sister has married before her. This view is supported by a passage in the Vasistha Dharma Sütra, 10 and by the use of the word agredidhişū-pati,11 which must mean the 'husband of a younger sister married before the elder.' In this case also Didhisū would mean 'wooer,' the elder sister being so called because, if her parents do not arrange a marriage for her, she is, according to Viṣṇu,12 to make her own choice of a husband (kuryāt svayamvaram). See also Edidhisuhpati and Daidhisavya.

Div, 'sky.' The world as a whole is regarded as divided into the three domains of 'earth,' 'air' or 'atmosphere,' and 'heaven' or 'sky' (div), or alternatively into 'heaven and earth' $(dy\bar{a}v\bar{a}-prthiv\bar{\imath})$, which two are then considered as comprising the universe, the atmosphere being included in the sky. Lightning, wind, and rain belong to the atmosphere, solar and

⁵ i. 18; xx. 7 et seq.

⁶ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. didhiṣu, 3.

⁷ iii. 173.

⁸ Cf. Leist, Altarisches Jus Gentium, 106.

⁹ Laugākṣi, quoted by Kullūka on Manu, iii. 160; Commentary on Āpastamba, loc. cit.

¹⁰ xx. 7 et seq.

¹¹ Cf. agre-didhişu, 'one who woos (a younger sister) before (her elder sister is married),' in Apastamba, loc. cil.; Gautama, xv. 16; Vasiştha, i. 18; Kāṭhaka, loc. cil.; agre-dadhus, Maitrā-yaṇī Saṃhitā, iv. 1, 9; agre-dadhişu, Kapiṣṭhala, loc. cil.; agra-didhişu, Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 8, 11.

¹² Visnu Dharma Sūtra, xxiv. 40. Cf. Delbrück, op. cit., 579-586.

¹ Rv. ii. 40; viii. 6, 15; 10, 6; 90,

² Rv. i. 143, ²; 159, ¹; 160, ¹; iv. 14, ², etc.; Brhadāranyaka Upanisad, iii. 8, ³. ⁹; Chāndogya Upanisad,

vii. 4, 2; viii. 1, 3. In the Aitareya Āraṇyaka, iii. 1, 2, and the Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka, vii. 3, it is said that when heavy and constant rain falls people say, 'Heaven and earth have united.'

similar phenomena to the sky. In some passages³ the vault $(n\bar{a}ka)$ of the sky is added after the usual triad, and before the celestial light (svar, jyotis).

The threefold division of the universe is reflected in a threefold division of the three elements—earth, air, and sky. Thus a highest (uttama, uttara, pārya), a middle, and a lowest heaven are specified. In the Atharvaveda the three heavens are distinguished as 'rich in water' (udanvatī), as pīlumatī (of uncertain meaning), and as the pradyaus, where the Fathers sit. Heaven is frequently called vyoman as well as rocana (properly the 'luminous space' of heaven), and the dividing firmament which separates the visible upper world from the highest heaven is called, besides nāka, 'vault,' sānu, 'summit,' viṣṭaḥ, 'surface,' and pṛṣṭha, 'ridge,' and even 'ridge of the vault,' or 'summit of the vault.'

Similarly three atmospheres (rajas), or oftener two, are alluded to,¹¹ but the division here is merely artificial. In one passage ¹² six $raj\bar{a}msi$, 'regions,' are referred to, the heavens and the earths no doubt being meant. The usual name for the atmosphere is antarika.

The three earths are equally artificial, the origin of the triad being probably the use of $prthiv\bar{\imath}$ in the plural 13 to denote the three divisions of the universe (just as pitarau, 'two fathers,' denotes 'father and mother'). 14 The earth is called $k\bar{\imath}am$, $k\bar{\imath}a$, $gm\bar{a}$, or designated by the epithets $mah\bar{\imath}$, 'the great,' $prthiv\bar{\imath}$ or $urv\bar{\imath}$, 'the broad,' $utt\bar{\imath}an\bar{\imath}a$, 'the extended,' and is regularly contrasted as idam, 'this world here,' with the upper sphere. 15

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3 Av. iv. 14, 3 = Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvii. 67.
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⁴ Rv. v. 60, 6.

⁵ Rv. iv. 26, 6.

⁶ Rv. vi. 40, 5. In Rv. v. 4, 3, it is called tribya.

⁷ xviii. 2, 48.

⁸ Trīni or tri rocanā, Rv. i. 102, 8;

^{149, 4;} v. 69, 1, etc.

⁹ Rv. i. 125, 5. *Cf.* iii. 2, 12. ¹⁰ Rv. viii. 103, 2. *Cf.* also ix. 86,

<sup>27.
11</sup> Rv. iv. 53, 5; v. 69, 1. Cf. also the references to the 'highest' atmo-

sphere, uttama, ix. 22, 5; parama, iii. 30, 2; tṛtīya, ix. 74, 6; x. 45, 3; 123, 8. The 'lower' (upara) or 'terrestrial' (pārthiva) is contrasted with the 'heavenly' (divya) space. See i. 62, 5; iv. 53, 3.

¹² Rv. i. 164, 6. Cf. vii. 87, 5.

¹³ Rv. i. 188, 9. 10; vii. 104, 11.

¹⁴ Cf. Delbrück, Altindische Syntax, p. 98; Macdonell, Sanskrit Grammar, 183c (p. 158).

¹⁶ Rv. i. 22, 17; 154, 1. 3; and regularly in the later Samhitās and the Brāhmaņas.

The shape of the earth is compared with a wheel in the Rigveda, ¹⁶ and is expressly called 'circular' (pari-maṇḍala) in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa. ¹⁷ When earth is conjoined with heaven, the two are conceived as great bowls (camvā) turned towards each other. ¹⁸ In the Aitareya Āraṇyaka ¹⁹ the two are regarded as halves of an egg. The distance of heaven from the earth is given by the Atharvaveda ²⁰ as a thousand days' journey for the sun-bird, by the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa ²¹ as a thousand days' journey for a horse, while the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa ²² whimsically estimates the distance as equivalent to a thousand cows standing one on the top of the other.

According to Zimmer,²³ the Vedic poets conceived the atmosphere to be above the earth in its upper division only, but below it in its lower stratum. The evidence,²⁴ however, for the latter assumption is quite insufficient.²⁵ The theory of the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa²⁶ is that the sun merely reverses its bright side at night, turning its light on the stars and the moon while it retraverses its course to the east; and it has been shown²⁵ that this is probably the doctrine of the Rigveda also.²⁷ See also Sūrya and Candramās. For the Vedic knowledge of the planets, see Graha.

There is no geographical division of the earth in Vedic literature. The Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa 28 states that the centre of the earth is a span north of the Plakṣa Prāṣravaṇā, and that the centre of the sky is the constellation of the seven Rṣis, the Great Bear. For the quarters, see Diś.

16 x. 89, 4. On the other hand, the earth is regarded as catur-bhryti, 'four-cornered,' in Rv. x. 58, 3.

Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 9.

18 Rv. iii. 55, 20.

¹⁹ iii. 1, 2; Śāńkhāyana Āraņyaka, vii. 3.

 20 x, 8, $_{1}$ S = xiii, 2, $_{3}$ S; 3, $_{14}$.

21 ii. 17. Cf. Aśvina.

²² xvi. 8, 6; in xxi. 1, 9, with the alternatives of 1,000 days of the journey of a horse, or of the sun, or 1,000 leagues.

23 Altindisches Leben, 357, 358.

24 Rv. v. 81, 4; vi. 9, 1; vii. 80, 1.

25 Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 10.

²⁶ iii. 44, 4. Speyer's interpretation of this passage, *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society*, 1906, 723-727, is anticipated and supplemented by Macdonell, *loc. cit.*

²⁷ i. 115, 5; x. 37, 3.

²³ iv. 26, 12. Cf. Pañcavinnsa Brāhmana, xxv. 10, 16; Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 31, n. 2. Cf. Bergaigne, Religion Védique, 1, 1-3; Wallis, Cosmology of the Rigveda, 111-117; Zimmer, op. cit., 357-359; Macdonell, op. cit., pp. 8-11; Thibaut, Astronomie, Astrologie und Mathematik, 5, 6; Weber, Indische Studien, 9, 358-364.

Divodāsa Atithigva is one of the leading princes of the early Vedic age. He was a son of Vadhryaśva,¹ and father, or more probably grandfather, of Sudās, the famous king of the Tṛtsu family, among the Bharatas. Probably Pijavana was the son and Sudās the grandson. Divodāsa was naturally a Bharata,² and, like Sudās, was an opponent of the Turvaśas and Yadus.³ His great enemy was Śambara, the Dāsa, who was apparently chief of a mountain people,⁴ and whom he repeatedly defeated.⁵ He was also, it seems, like his father Vadhryaśva,⁶ an energetic supporter of the fire ritual, for Agni is once called by his name in the Rigveda.¹ On the other hand, he was defeated, with Āyu and Kutsa, by Indra's aid. In several passages he seems closely connected with the singer family, the Bharadvājas.8

From one passage, where Divodāsa is said to have fought against the Paņis, the Pārāvatas, and Bṛsaya, Hillebrandt lo has inferred that he was engaged in conflicts with the tribes of Arachosia, and interpreting the name as the 'heavenly Dāsa'll conjectures that he was himself a Dāsa. This conclusion is not probable, for the Sarasvatī on which the battle in question took place, and which can hardly be the Haraqaiti of Arachosia, would naturally designate the later Sarasvatī, while the Pārāvatas are mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, la in the east, about the Yamunā. Bergaigne's

1 Rv. vi. 61, 1.

3 As Atithigva, Rv. vii. 19, 8; as Divodāsa, ix. 61, 2.

Rv. i. 130, 7; ii. 12, 11; vi. 26, 5; vii. 18, 20. Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 161.

⁵ See Rv. i. 112, 14; 116, 18; 119, 4; 130, 7-10; ii. 19, 6; iv. 26, 3; 30, 20; vi. 26, 3. 5; 43, 1; 47, 21. 22; ix. 61, 2.

6 Rv. x. 69, 1 et seq. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 176; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 96, 1, 2. 7 Daivodāsa, 'worshipped by Divodāsa': viii. 103, 2. Cf. vi. 16, 5. 19; 31, 1. For the defeat by Indra, cf. Rv. i. 53, 10; ii. 14, 7; vi. 18, 13; viii. 64, 2; Bergaigne, Religion Védique, 2, 337, 344.

8 Cf. Rv. i. 112, 13. 14; 116, 18; vi. 16, 5; 31, 4; 47, 22 et seq.; Pañca-vimsa Brāhmaṇa, xv. 3, 7; Hillebrandt, op. cit., 1, 104.

9 vi. 61, 1 et seq.

10 Op. cit., I, 97 et seq.

11 This is very improbable. See Bergaigne, op. cit., 2, 209; Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 155; Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 49, 175; 51, 272.

12 ix. 4, 11. See Paravata.

² Rv. vi. 16, 4. 5. 19. For Sudās as his descendant, see vii. 18, 25, with verse 23, where Paijavana is an epithet of Sudās.

opinion¹³ that Divodāsa and Atithigva were different people cannot be supported in view of the complete parallelism in the acts of the two persons.¹⁴ See also Pratardana.

The people of Divodasa are referred to in a hymn of the

Rigveda.15

13 Op. cit., 2, 342 ct scq.

14 Compare, e.g., vii. 19, 8, with ix. 61, 2 (opposed to Turvasa and Yadu); i. 51, 6; vi. 26, 3, with ii. 19, 6; vi. 31, 4 (defeat of Sambara); and see Hillebrandt, op. cit., 3, 268; Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 210 et seq.; Macdonell, op. cit., p. 161.

15 i. 130, 10 (one of the series attri-

buted to Parucchepa).

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 126. Oldenberg, Buddha, 406; Ludwig, op. cit., 3, 114, 176; Grierson, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1908, 604, 837; Keith, ibid., 831 et seq.; 1138 et seq. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., distinguishes two Divodāsas, one being the ancestor or father of Sudās, the other the enemy of Sambara. Divodāsa is not mentioned in Maņdalas, iii, v, viii, x.

Divo-dāsa Bhaima-seni ('descendant of Bhīmasena') is mentioned in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā¹ as a contemporary of Āruṇi.

1 vii. 1, 8. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 3, 472.

Divya, 'ordeal,' is a term not found until the later literature, but several references to the practice of ordeals have been seen in Vedic literature. The fire ordeal seen in the Atharvaveda by Schlagintweit, Weber, Ludwig, Zimmer, and others, has been disproved by Grill, Bloomfield, and Whitney. But such an ordeal appears in the Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa, and an ordeal with a glowing axe occurs in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad as applied in an accusation of theft. Geldner suggests that this usage is referred to even in the Rigveda, but this is most improbable. Ludwig and Griffith solocover in another

- ¹ ii. 12.
- 2 Die Gottesurtheile der Indier, 13 et seg.
- 3 Indische Studien, 13, 168.
- 4 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 445.
- 5 Altindisches Leben, 184.
- ⁶ Hundert Lieder,² 45, 87.
- 7 Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, ccxxi; American Journal of Philology, 11, 334, 335; Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 294.
- 8 Translation of the Atharvaveda,
- 9 xiv. 6, 6.
 - 10 Chāndogya Upaniṣad, vi. 16.
 - 11 Vedische Studien, 2, 159.
 - 12 iii. 53, 22.
 - 13 Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 25%.
 - 14 Op. cit., 4, 44.
 - 15 Hymns of the Rigveda, 1, 210.

passage of the Rigveda¹⁶ references to **Dīrghatamas'** having been subjected to the fire and water ordeals, but this view cannot be supported. According to Weber,¹⁷ the 'balance' ordeal is referred to in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,¹⁸ but see **Tulā**.

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16 i. 158, 4 et seq.
17 Indische Streifen, 1, 21; 2, 363.
18 xi. 2, 7, 33.
Cf. Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 145: Zeit.
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schrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 44, 347, 348; Stenzler, ibid., 9, 669 et seq.

Divya Śvan, the 'divine dog,' in one passage of the Atharvaveda¹ appears to denote Canis major or Sirius. But Bloomfield² thinks that the two divine dogs referred to in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā³ and the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa⁴ are the sun and moon, and that the sun is meant in the Atharvaveda.

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1 vi. 80, 1.
2 Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 163; Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 500, 501.
3 i. 6, 9.
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Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 353; Whitney, Translation of the Atharva veda, 341.

Diś, 'direction,' is a word very frequently used in the Rigveda and later¹ to denote a quarter of the sky. As a general rule, four quarters are mentioned—east, south, west, north.² But the number of the 'directions' is sometimes increased up to ten by the addition to these four of various others. The five points include the zenith $(\bar{u}rdhv\bar{a})$;³ the six, the zenith and the nadir $(\bar{u}rdhv\bar{a}$ and $av\bar{a}c\bar{\iota})$;⁴ the seven, the zenith, the ground on which one stands $(dhruv\bar{a})$, and the air $(antarik\bar{\imath}a)$ between these two $(vyadhv\bar{a})$;⁵ the eight include the intermediate quarters (S.E., S.W., N.E., N.W.);⁶ the nine add to these the zenith;⁵ the ten, zenith and nadir.⁵ The number

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1 Rv. i. 124, 3; 183, 5; iii. 30, 12;
Av. iii. 31, 4; xi. 2, 12, etc.
2 Rv. vii. 72, 5; x. 36, 14; 42, 11;
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Av. xv. 2, i et seq., etc.

3 Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 1, 15;
Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 8, 9.
4 Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 12, 8;

Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxii. 24; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iv. 2, 4

⁵ Rv. ix. 114, 3; Av. iv. 40, 1;

Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, vii. 4, 1, 20; ix. 5, 2, 8; Taittirīya Āraņyaka, i. 7. 6 Taittirīya Samhitā, vii, 1, 15; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, i. 8, 1, 40, etc.

7 Šānkhāyana Šrauta Sūtra, xvi.

8 Rv. i. 16., 14; viii. 101, 13; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. 2, 2, 34; viii. 4, 2, 13, etc.

five is sometimes made up by the ground beneath the observer's feet $(dhruv\bar{a})$, and the number six by that point $(dhruv\bar{a})$ and the zenith $(\bar{u}rdhv\bar{a})$; the 'lofty' $(brhat\bar{\imath})^{11}$ sometimes taking the place of the 'vertical' $(\bar{u}rdhv\bar{a})$.

9 Av. viii. 9, 15; xiii. 3, 6; xv. 14, 1.5; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, ix. 32; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, ix. 4, 3, 10, and cf. Dhruvā.

10 Av. iii. 27, 1; iv. 14, 8; xii. 3,
 55; xv. 4, 1 et seq.; xviii. 3, 34;
 Aitareya Brāhmaņa, viii. 14, etc. Cf.
 Rv. x. 14, 16.

¹¹ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xiv. 13; Kāthaka Samhitā, xvii. 8.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 359; Weber, Proceedings of the Berlin Academy, 1895, 846; Indische Studien, 17, 293, 294; 18, 153; St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Dīrgha-tamas ('long darkness') Māmateya ('son of Mamatā') Aucathya ('son of Ucatha') is mentioned as a singer in one hymn of the Rigveda,1 and is referred to in several passages 2 by his metronymic, Māmateya, alone. He is said, both in the Rigveda¹ and in the Śānkhāyana Āranyaka,³ to have attained the tenth decade of life. In the Aitareya Brāhmana4 he appears as the priest of Bharata. The Brhaddevata 5 contains a preposterous legend made up of fragments of the Rigveda,6 according to which Dirghatamas was born blind, but recovered his sight; in old age he was thrown into a river by his servants, one of whom, Traitana, attacked him, but killed himself instead. Carried down by the stream, he was cast up in the Anga country, where he married Usij, a slave girl, and begot Kakṣīvant. The two legends here combined are not even consistent, for the second ignores Dirghatamas' recovery of sight. To attach any historical importance to them, as does Pargiter,7 would seem to be unwise.

¹ i. 158, 1. 6.

² i. 147, 3; 152, 6; iv. 4, 13. In viii. 9, 10, Dirghatamas is mentioned with Kaksīvant, but not as a relative.

³ ii. 17; Keith, Śānkhāyana Aranyaka,

⁴ viii. 23.

⁵ iv. 11-15; 21-25, with Macdonell's notes.

⁶ From i. 140-164, which hymns are

traditionally attributed to Dirghatamas. But see Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 221.

⁷ Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society. 1910, 44.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rig veda, 3, 164, 165; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 12, 226, 232, 247, 268, 279.

Dīrgha-nītha appears to be the proper name of a sacrificer in one hymn of the Rigveda.¹

viii. 50, 10. Cf. Roth, St. Peters- stands the word as an adjective, mean-burg Dictionary, s.v. Ludwig under- ing 'of long duration.'

Dīrgha-śravas ('far-famed') is the name of a royal seer who, according to the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa,¹ having been banished from his kingdom, and suffering from actual hunger, 'saw' a certain Sāman (chant), and thus obtained food. In one passage of the Rigveda² an Auśija,³ a merchant (vaṇij), is mentioned as dīrgha-śravas, which may be a proper name, as Sāyaṇa holds. or an adjective, as it is understood by Roth.⁴

- 1 xv. 3, 25.
- 2 i. 112, 11.
- 3 A metronymic, 'descendant of Usij,' according to Sāyaṇa; but an adjective, meaning 'desirous,' accord- veda, 3, 114.

ing to Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

⁴ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rig-

Dīrghāpsas, used in the Rigveda¹ as an epithet of a chariot. means, according to Roth,² 'having a long front part.'

1 i. 122, 15.
2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. | Cf. Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1.

Dīrghāyutva, 'longevity,' is a constant object of the prayers of the Vedic Indians,¹ and length of life is never deprecated in the Saṃhitās and Brāhmaṇas, while the Atharvaveda² is full of spells intended to prolong existence (āyuṣyāṇi).

1 Rv. x. 62, 2; Av. i, 22, 2, etc.; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xviii. 6; Šatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i, 9, 1, 13, etc. So the adjective dīrghāyus, Rv. iv. 15, 9. 10; x. 85, 39; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xii. 100, etc. The Brāhmaṇas regularly express the reward for ritual actions by the phrase sarvam āyur eti, 'he lives' veda, 63-65.

all his days.' The ideal of life is 100 years. See Weber, Indische Studien, 17, 193; Festgruss an Roth, 137; Lanman, Sanskrit Reader, 384.

² ii. 13; 28; 29; vii. 32, and man; other hymns. See Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 49 ct seq.; Atharvaveda, 63-65.

Dīrghāraņya, 'wide tract of forest,' in the Aitareya¹ and Satapatha² Brāhmaṇas refers to the extensive jungles which

must clearly then have covered Northern India. In one of the Aitareya passages³ it is said that in the east the villages are close together and frequent, while in the west there are forests.

3 iii. 44.

Dīv (sem.) in the Rigveda¹ and the Atharvaveda² denotes the 'game of dice.' See Akṣa.

¹ x. 27, 17. ² vii. 50 9; 109, 5.

Dughā, 'yielding milk,' denotes 'cow' in a few passages in the Samhitās.¹

1 Rv. viii. 50, 3; x. 67, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxviii, 16. 39, etc.

Dundubhi, apparently an onomatopoetic word, means 'drum,' as used in both war and peace. It is often mentioned from the Rigveda¹ onwards.² A special sort of drum was the 'earth drum,' made by digging a hole in the ground and covering it with a hide. This was employed in the Mahāvrata, a rite performed at the winter solstice, for the purpose of driving away influences hostile to the return of the sun.³ A 'drumbeater' is included in the list of sacrificial victims at the Puruṣamedha or 'human sacrifice.'4

1. i. 28, 5; vi. 47, 29. 31.

² Av. v. 20, 1 et seq.; 21, 7; 31, 7; vi. 38, 4; xii. 1, 41; Taittiriya Brāhmaņa, i. 3, 6, 2; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 1, 5, 6; dundubhya, 'connected with the drum,' Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xvi. 35.

⁸ Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xxxiv. 5 (Indische Studien, 3, 477); Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvii. 14, 11; Aitareya Āranyaka, v. 1, 5, with Keith's notes; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 148, n. 2; Friedlaender, Śānkhāyana Āranyaka, 29, 45.

⁴ Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 13, 1 (not in the Vājasaneyi Sanhitā). *Cf.* Brhadāranyaka Upanisad, ii. 4, 6.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 289; and for the epic drum in battle, Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 318.

Dur is used several times in the Rigveda¹ to denote 'door,' both literally and metaphorically.

¹ i. 68, 10; 113, 4; 121, 4; 188, 5; ii. 2, 7, etc.

Durona is used in the Rigveda,1 and sometimes later,2 to denote 'home,' both literally and metaphorically. See Grha.

1 jii. 1, 18; 25, 5; iv. 13, 1; v. 76, 1 ² Av. vii, 17, 3; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, 4, etc. xxxiii, 72, etc.

Dur-ga, 'hard to approach,' occurs in the Rigveda as a neuter substantive only, sometimes in the sense of 'fort,' 'stronghold.'1 Cf. Pur.

1 v. 34, 7; vii. 25, 4.

Dur-gaha is mentioned in a hymn of the Rigveda,1 where his grandsons are lauded for their generosity, though Sayana renders the word adjectivally.2 In another passage of the Rigveda,3 however, Sāyana sees in the epithet Daurgaha a description of Purukutsa as Durgaha's son, who was either captured by the enemy or slain, and whose wife, Purukutsani, then obtained a son, Trasadasyu, to restore the line; he also quotes a story, not found in the Brhaddevata,4 to support this interpretation. On the other hand, the Satapatha Brahmana⁵ seems to take Daurgaha as meaning a horse. Sieg6 thinks that the same sense should be adopted in the Rigveda passage, which he interprets as referring to the sacrifice of a horse, Daurgaha, by King Purukutsa to gain a son; he also sees in Dadhikrāvan, with Pischel7 and Ludwig,8 a real horse, the charger of Trasadasyu. The Satapatha Brāhmaṇa's interpretation of Daurgaha is, however, doubtful, and cannot be regarded as receiving support from the case of Dadhikrāvan, who was probably a divinity, and not a real horse at all.9

¹ viii. 65, 12.

^{2 &#}x27;Plunged in distress' (duhkham gāhamāna).

³ iv. 42, 8.

⁴ As Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., says it is.

⁵ xiii. 5, 4, 5. According to the Naighantuka (i. 14), Daurgaha is a synonym of 'horse.'

⁶ Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 96-102.

⁷ Vedische Studien, 1, 124.

⁸ Translation of the Rigveda, 4, 79. Cf. Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 71.

⁹ Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, pp. 148,

Cf. Ludwig, op. cit., 3, 163, 174;

Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 301, 302.

Dur-nāman, 'of evil name,' is the designation in the Rigveda1 and the Atharvaveda2 of a demon causing disease, or the disease itself. The Nirukta³ explains the words as meaning a 'worm,' an interpretation which accords with the widespread belief in disease-causing worms.4 Later Durnāman denotes 'hæmorrhoids.'5

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1 x. 162, 2.
  2 ii. 25, 2; viii. 6, 1 et seq.; xvi. 6, 7;
xix. 36, 1 et seq. So also the feminine of the Atharvaveda, 314 et seq., 351.
Durņāmnī, iv. 17, 5; xix. 36, 6.
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⁵ Suśruta, 1, 177, 10, etc.

Dur-mukha, 'ugly-faced,' is the name, in the Aitareya Brāhmana,1 of a Pāñcāla, that is, Pañcāla king, who conquered the world, and whose priest was Brhaduktha.

¹ viii. 23. The reading may be a-rājā, 'not a king,' but this is not necessary.

Durya, 'belonging to the door or house,' appears in several passages of the Samhitas1 as a plural substantive denoting the 'door-posts,' or more generally 'dwelling.'

¹ Masculine plural, Rv. i. 91, 19; | Vājasaneyi Samhitā, i. 11; feminine x. 40, 12; Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 6, 3, 1; | plural, Rv. iv. 1, 9. 18; 2, 12; vii. 1, 11.

Duryona occurs a few times in the Rigveda in the sense of 'house.'

1 i. 174, 7; v. 29, 10; 32, 8.

Dur-varāha probably denotes a 'wild boar.' It is mentioned in the Satapatha Brāhmaņa1 and the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmana.2

1 xii. 4, 1, 4. 2 i. 51, 4 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 23, 332).

Dulā. See Naksatra (Krttikās).

Duś-carman, 'afflicted with a skin disease,' occurs in the Taittirīya Samhitā¹ and Brāhmaņa.² The disease meant is probably leprosy, the usual name of which is Kilāsa.3

⁴ Bloomfield, Atharvaveda, 61; Hymns

¹ ii. 1, 4, 3; 5, 1, 7. xxiii. 16, 11; Taittirīya Āraņyaka, ² i. 7, 8, 3. 3 Pañcavimsa Brāhmana, xiv. 3, 17;

Duḥ-śāsu is possibly a proper name in the Rigveda,1 and would then denote an enemy of Kuruśravana. Ludwig 2 thinks that he was a Parśu or Persian, but this is most improbable, and the word may simply be an adjective meaning 'malignant.'

> 1 x. 33, I. ² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 165.

Duḥ-śīma is mentioned in the Rigveda¹ as a generous donor, his patronymic perhaps being Tānva.2

1 x. 93, 14. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rig-² x. 93, 15. veda, 3, 166.

Duş-ţarītu, 'hard to defeat,' is the name of a king of the Sṛñjayas, who was deposed from a principality that had existed for ten generations, but was re-instated by Cakra Sthapati in spite of the resistance of Balhika Prātipīya, according to the Satapatha Brāhmana.1

1 xii. 9, 3, 1 et seq. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 205 207.

Duh-santa. See Dauhsanti.

Duhitr is the regular designation of 'daughter' from the Rigveda onwards.1 The word appears to be derived from duh, 'milk,' in the sense of one who nourishes a child, rather than as the 'milker' of the primitive family or the suckling.2 See also Strī, Pati, Pitr, Bhrātr.

1 Rv. viii. 101, 15; x. 17, 1; 40, 5; 61, 5. 7; Av. ii. 14; 2; vi. 100, 3; vii. 12, 1; x. 1, 25; Satapatha Brāhmana, i. 7, 4, 1; 8, 1, 8, etc.

² Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 454.

Dūta, 'messenger' or 'envoy,' is found several times in the Rigveda 1 and later, 2 used metaphorically. The Sūta seems to have performed the duties later assigned to the Dūta.

12.

² Av. viii. 8, 10, etc.; Satapatha Brahmana, iii. 5, 1, 6; Kausitaki Upanisad, ii. 1, etc. The feminine etc.

1 iii. 3, 2; vi. 8, 4; vii. 3, 3; x. 14, | form Dūtī is found in Rv. x. 108, 2. 3, in the story of Sarama's mission to the Panis. Dūtya, 'mission,' occurs in Rv. i. 12, 4; 161, 1; iv. 7, 8; 8, 4, Dūrvā, a species of grass (Panicum dactylon), is mentioned frequently from the Rigveda¹ onwards.² It grew in damp ground.³ A simile occurring in the Rigveda⁴ seems to indicate that the ears lay horizontal with the stem. Cf. Pākadūrvā.

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1 x. 16, 13; 134, 5; 142, 8. patha Brāhmaņa, iv. 5, 10, 5; vii. 4, 2, 2 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iv. 2, 9, 2; lo. 12, etc. v. 2, 8, 3; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xiii. 20; Rv. x. 16, 13; 142, 8. Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 5. 8; Śata- x. 134, 5. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 70.
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Dūrśa, denoting some kind of garment, is mentioned twice in the Atharvaveda.¹ Weber² thinks that it was worn by the aborigines.

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1 iv. 7, 6; viii. 6, 11. 2 Indische Studien, 18, 29.
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Dūṣīkā, 'rheum of the eyes,' is mentioned as a disease in the Atharvaveda¹ and later.²

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    1 xvi. 6, 8.
    2 Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxxiv. 12; Vāja- | Brāhmaṇa, iii. 1, 3, 10.
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Dṛḍha-cyut Āgasti ('descendant of Agastya') is mentioned in the Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa¹ as having been Udgātṛ priest at the Sattra ('sacrificial session') of the Vibhindukīyas.

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1 iii. 233 (Journal of the American of the patronymic is Agastya) as the Oriental Society, 18, 38). He is given in the Anukramaṇī (where the form Studien, 3, 219.
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Drdha-jayanta. See Vipaścit and Vaipaścita.

1. Dṛti, a 'leather bag to hold fluids,' is frequently mentioned in the Rigveda¹ and later.² In one passage³ it is called dhmāta, 'inflated,' the man afflicted with dropsy being compared with such a bag. Milk (Kṣīra) and intoxicating liquor (Surā) are mentioned as kept in bags.⁴

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1 i. 191, 10; iv. 51, 1. 3; v. 83, 7; vi. 48, 18; 103, 2; viii. 5, 19; 9, 18.

2 Av. vii. 18, 1; Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 8, 19, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxvi. 18. 19; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 8, 26; xvi. 13, 13.
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2. Dṛti Aindrota ('descendant of Indrota') is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇā¹ as a contemporary of Abhipratārin Kākṣaseni and as a pupil of Indrota Daivāpa in a Vaṃśa (list of teachers) in the Jaīminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa.² Possibly the same Dṛti is meant in the compound Dṛti-Vātavantau, which is found in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.³ The former is here said to have continued, after the Mahāvrata was over, the sacrificial session in which both had been engaged, with the result that his descendants prospered more than the Vātavatas.

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1 xiv. 1, 12. 15.
2 iii. 40, 2.
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xii. 3; Śāṅkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xiii. 23, 1; Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, x. 10, 7.

Cf. Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 52, 53.

Dṛpta-bālāki Gārgya ('descendant of Garga') is the name of a teacher who is mentioned in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (ii. 1, 1) as a contemporary of Ajātaśatru of Kāśi.

Dṛbhīka is the name of a man¹ or a demon,² who, according to the Rigveda,³ was slain by Indra.

¹ Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 152, 207, who compares the Derbikes; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 162.

² Grassmann, Wörterbuch, s.v.; Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Geldner, Rigveda, Glossar, 85.
³ ii. 14, 3.

Dṛśāna Bhārgava ('descendant of Bhṛgu') is mentioned as a seer in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā.¹

1 xvi. 8. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 3, 459.

Dṛṣad appears in the Rigveda¹ and Atharvaveda² to denote not a millstone,³ but merely a stone used to pound grain, which was placed on another stone as a support. When used later⁴

³ xxv. 3, 6. So a Sattra of a year's duration is later called *Drti-vātavator*avana, Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xxiv. 4, necticut

16; 6, 25; Āśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra,

52, 53.

¹ vii. 104, 22; viii. 72, 4.

² ii. 31, 1; v. 23, 8.

³ Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 269.

⁴ Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 6, 8, 3; 9, 3; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, i. 1, 1, 22; ii. 6

^{1, 9,} etc.

in connexion with Upala, the lower and the upper millstone, or mortar and pestle may be meant; but this is not certain. Eggeling⁵ renders them as the large and small millstones. See also Upara and Upala.

⁵ Sacred Books of the East, 12, 11 | guished from 'mortar and pestle,' (drṣad-upale, which are here distin- | ulūkhala-musale). Cf. Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1, 108, 109.

Dṛṣadvatī, 'stony,' is the name of a river which flows into the Sarasvatī after running for a time parallel to it. It is mentioned in the Rigveda, along with the Sarasvatī and the Āpayā, as the scene of action of the Bharata princes. In the Pañcavimsa Brāhmana² and later³ the Drsadvatī and the Sarasvatī are the scene of special sacrifices. In Manu4 these two rivers form the western boundary of the Middle Country.

1 iii. 23, 4.

2 xxv. 10. 13.

3 Kātyāyana Srauta Sūtra, xxiv. 6, 6. 38; Lātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, x. 19, 4. 4 ii. 17.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 18; Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 34; Indian Literature, 67, 102; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 87.

Drsta. See Adrsta.

Devaka Mānyamāna ('descendant of Manyamāna') appears in the Rigveda 1 as an opponent of the Trtsus, and as connected with Sambara. Possibly, however, as Grassmann suggests, the words should be understood as denoting Sambara, 'who deemed himself a god,' devaka being used contemptuously.2

1 vii. 18, 20 (devakam cin mānya- | 2 Cf. Rv. ii. 11, 2 (amartyam cid dasam mānam). manyamanam). Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 173.

Devakī-putra, 'son of Devakī,' is the metronymic of Kṛṣṇa in the Chandogya Upanisad.1 According to the Epic,2 a Devaka was father of Devakī, Kṛṣṇa's mother; the St. Petersburg Dictionary suggests that he was the 'king of the Gandharvas', also referred to in the Epic.3

¹ iii. 17, 6, ² Mahābhārata, i. 4480; v. 80, etc. 3 Ibid., i. 2704.

Deva-jana-vidyā, 'knowledge of divine beings,' is one of the sciences enumerated in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ and the Chāndogya Upaniṣad.²

1 xiii. 4, 3, 10. Cf. x. 5, 2, 20. 2 vii. 1, 2. 4; 2, 1; 7, 1.

Deva-taras Śyāvasāyana Kāśyapa ('descendant of Kaśyapa') is mentioned in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa¹ as a pupil of Rśyaśrnga. In the Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa,² as Śāvasāyana, he is a pupil of his father Śavas, who again was a pupil of Kāśyapa.

1 iii. 40, 2. 2 Indische Studien, 4, 373.

Devatyā occurs in the text of the Atharvaveda, where it must, if the reading is correct, denote some animal. But the reading should no doubt be *rokinī-devatyās*, having the red one as deity.

1 i. 22, 3.
2 Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, vaveda, 23.
s.v.

Devana is mentioned once in the Rigveda¹ in connexion with dicing. The word must designate the place on which the dice are thrown (elsewhere called Adhidevana), and it is so explained by Durga in his commentary on the Nirukta.²

1 x. 43, 5.
2 v. 22.

Cf. Lüders, Das Würfelspiel im alten Indien, 14.

Deva-nakṣatra, 'asterism of the gods,' is the name applied in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa¹ to the first fourteen lunar mansions, which are said to be south, while the others are called Yamanakṣatra, 'asterisms of Yama,' and are said to be north. See Nakṣatra.

¹ i. 5, 2, 6, 7. Cf. Weber, Naxatra, 2, 309, 310.

Deva-bhāga Śrautarṣa is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ as the Purohita, or 'domestic priest,' of both the

1 ii. 4, 4, 5. This passage is mis- | Weber, Indische Studien, 2, 9, n.; quoted by Sāyaṇa on Rv. i. 81, 3. See | Geldner, Vedische Studien, 3, 152.

Sṛnjayas and the Kurus. In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa² he is said to have taught Girija Bābhravya the science of the dissection of the sacrificial animal (paśor vibhakti). In the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa³ he is an authority on the Sāvitra Agni.

² vii. 1. ³ iii. 10, 9, 11.

Deva-malimluc, 'robber of the gods,' is the epithet of Rahasya,' who is said in the Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa² to have slain the pious Vaikhānasas at Munimaraṇa ('saint's death'). He was apparently an Asura, but may have been a real person.

1 Or Rahasyu.
2 xiv. 4, 7. Cf. Hopkins, Transactions | of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 51, 52.

Deva-muni, 'divine saint,' is the epithet of Tura in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xxv. 14, 5). The name is given in the Anukramaṇī to the author of a hymn of the Rigveda (x. 146).

Deva-rājan apparently denotes a king of Brahminical descent in the phrase 'Sāmans of Devarājans' in the Pancaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xviii. 10, 5). Cf. Rājanyarṣi and Varṇa.

Deva-rāta ('god-given') Vaiśvāmitra ('descendant of Viśvāmitra') is the name given to Śunaḥśepa after his adoption by Viśvāmitra in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.¹

1 vii. 17. Cf. Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 27.

Devala is mentioned as a Rsi in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā (xxii. 11). See also Daivala.

Devavant is mentioned in a Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts') in the Rigveda¹ as the ancestor of Sudās, apparently his grandfather; or if Pijavana be accepted as Sudās' father, and Divodāsa as his grandfather, then his great-grandfather, and father of Vadhryaśva. The succession in the latter case would then be Devavant, Vadhryaśva, Divodāsa, Pijavana, Sudās.

¹ vii. 18, 22. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 171; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 2, 138.

Deva-vāta ('desired of the gods') is the name of a Bharata prince in the Rigveda, where he is mentioned as sacrificing on the Dṛṣadvatī, Sarasvatī, and Āpayā.

1 iii. 23, 2. Cf. Oldenberg, Buddha, 409; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 218.

Deva-vidyā, 'knowledge of the gods,' is one of the sciences enumerated in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (vii. 1, 2, 4; 2, 1; 7, 1).

Deva-śravas is the name of a Bharata prince who with Devavāta appears as a sacrificer on the Dṛṣadvatī, Sarasvatī, and Āpayā in the Rigveda.¹

¹ iii. 23, 2. 3. In the Anukramaņi he is called a son of Yama, and has a hymn, x. 17, ascribed to him.

Devātithi Kāṇva ('descendant of Kaṇva') is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa¹ as the seer of a Sāman (chant) by which he turned pumpkins into cows for himself and his son when they were starving in the desert, whither they had been driven by rivals. He is also the reputed author of a hymn of the Rigveda.²

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1 ix. 2, 19.
2 viii. 4.

Cf. Hopkins, Transactions of the Con-
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Devāpi Ārṣṭiṣeṇa ('descendant of Ḥṣṭiṣeṇa') is mentioned in a hymn of the Rigveda¹ and in the Nirukta.² According to the latter source there were two brothers, Devāpi and Śantanu, princes of the Kurus. The elder was Devāpi, but Śantanu got himself anointed king, whereupon no rain fell for twelve years. The drought being attributed by the Brahmins to his having superseded his elder brother, Śantanu offered the kingdom to Devāpi. The latter, however, refused, but acting as Purohita, or domestic priest, for his brother, obtained rain. The Bṛhaddevatā³ tells much the same tale, but adds that the reason for Devāpi's exclusion from the throne was the fact that he suffered from a skin disease. The Epic and later legends further

¹ x, 98.
2 ii. 10.
3 vii. 148 et seq., with Macdonell's notes.

develop the story, presenting two somewhat discrepant accounts. According to the one version,⁴ the ground of Devāpi's being passed over was leprosy, while in the other his devoting himself to asceticism in his youth was the cause of his brother's taking his place. The Epic,⁵ moreover, treats him as a son of Pratīpa, and names as his brothers Bāhlīka⁶ and Āṛṣṭiṣeṇa,⁷ who is a new figure developed from the patronymic of Devāpi. Possibly Sieg⁸ is right in holding that two stories, those of Devāpi, Pratīpa's son, and of Devāpi, Rṣṭiṣeṇa's son, have been confused; but in any case it is impossible to extract history from them.⁹

The Rigvedic hymn certainly appears to represent Devāpi as sacrificing for Santanu, who seems to be called Aulāna. 10 But there is no trace in it of the brotherhood of the two men, nor is there anything to show that Devāpi was not a Brahmin, but a Kṣatriya. Sieg, 11 who interprets the hymn by the Nirukta, thinks that he was a Kṣatriya, but on this occasion was enabled by the favour of Bṛhaspati to officiate as priest, and that the hymn shows clear recognition of the unusual character of his action; but this view seems very improbable.

- Mahābhārata, v. 5054 et seq. (=149, 15 et seq.), where Šāntanu is (as also in the Agni, cclxxvii. 34, the Brahma, xiii. 114, 118, and the Viṣṇu Purāṇas) the form of the name; Matsya Purāṇa, l. 39 et seq., in which, as well as in the Bhāgavata, ix. 22, 12. 13, and the Vāyu Purāṇa, xcix. 234, 237, the form is Santanu.
- Mahābhārata, i. 3751 (=94, 62);
 ix. 2285 (=40, 1); Vāyu Purāṇa,
 ii. 37, 230, etc.
- 6 Mahābhārata, cited in n. 4; Harivamsa, 1819.

- 7 Ibid., cited in n. 5.
- B Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 136.

 B As does Pargiter Journal of
- 9 As does Pargiter, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1910, 52, 53.
 - 10 Rv. x. 98, 11. 11 Op. cit., 129-142.
- Cf. Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 12, 272 et seq.; Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 203; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 192 et seq.; Macdonell, Brhaddevatā, 1, xxix; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 131, 132.

Devr is a rare word denoting the wife's 'brother-in-law' (that is, the husband's brother). He is included with the sisters of the husband among those over whom the wife of the husband—his elder brother—rules; at the same time the wife is to be devoted to him, and friendly to him. After the death

¹ Rv. x. 85, 46. Cf. Pati. 2 Rv. x. 85, 44. Av. xiv. 2, 18. Cf. xiv. 1, 39.

of the husband the Devr could perform the duty of begetting a son for him.4 No word occurs for the wife's brother corresponding to Devr.

4 Rv. x. 40, 2. Cf. x. 18, 8; Kaegi, the Atharvaveda, 948. Cf. Delbrück, Der Rigveda, n. 51; Lanman, Sanskrit | Die indogermanischen Verwandtschafts-Reader, 385; Whitney, Translation of namen, 516.

Deśa, 'land,' is a word that does not come into use till the time of the Upanisads and Sūtras, excepting one occurrence in the latest period of the Brāhmana2 literature, and one in a much-discussed passage of the Vājasaneyi Samhitā,3 where the Sarasvatī is mentioned as having five tributaries. This passage militates against the view that Sarasvatī was a name of the Indus, because the use of Desa here seems to indicate4 that the seer of the verse placed the Sarasvatī in the Madhyadesa or 'Middle Country,' to which all the geographical data of the Yajurvedas point.5

1 Where its use becomes common: Brhadāranyaka Upanişad, iv. 1, 16; 2, 3; Sānkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, iv. 14, 6: Kātyāyana Srauta Sūtra, xv. 4, 17, etc. So the adjective desiya, 'belonging to a land,' Kātyāyana, xxii. 4, 22; Lātyāyana Srauta Sūtra, viii. 6, 28.

² Aitareva Brāhmana, viii. 10 (a late

passage).

3 xxxiv. II.

4 Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 10, who thinks that the word crept into the text, where the Sarasvati originally meant the Indus, with the five tributaries of the Panjab.

Literature, ⁵ Macdonell, Sanskrit

Dehī in two passages of the Rigveda¹ refers to defences thrown up against an enemy, apparently earthworks or dikes. Cf. Pur.

174.

1 vi. 47, 2; vii. 6, 5. Cf. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 344; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 143.

Daidhişavya is mentioned in a Mantra of the Taittirīya Samhitā.1 Apparently the word (as derived from Didhiṣū) denotes the son of a younger sister married before the elder sister,2 rather than the son of a woman twice married, the explanation of the St. Petersburg Dictionary.

² American Journal of Philology, 17, 1 iii. 2, 4, 4; Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, ii. 1, 22; Kausika Sūtra, 3, 5; 137, 37. 431, n.

Daiyāmpāti, 'descendant of Dayāmpāta,' is the name of a teacher of the east, who was instructed by Śāṇḍilyāyana, according to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (ix. 5, 1, 14), in the lore of the construction of the fire-altar. The same patronymic is given, in the form of Dayyāmpāti, to Plakṣa, the contemporary of Atyaṃhas in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa (iii. 10, 9, 3-5).

r. Daiva (masc.) appears in the list of sciences in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad,¹ where Śaṅkara explains it as utpāta-jñāna, apparently the 'knowledge of portents.' The St. Petersburg Dictionary suggests that the word is here used adjectivally, and this view is followed by Little² and by Böhtlingk in his translation.³

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1 vii. 1, 2. 4; 2, 1; 7, 1.
<sup>2</sup> Grammatical Index, 83.
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Though he does not render it (Daiva Nidhi).

2. Daiva is the patronymic of the mythical Atharvan in the first two Vaṃśas (lists of teachers) of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.¹

1 ii. 5, 22; iv. 5, 28 (Mādhyamdina).

Daivala, 'descendant of Devala,' is the patronymic of Asita in the Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa (xiv. 11, 18).

Daiva-vāta, 'descendant of Devavāta,' is the patronymic of Spnjaya, probably the Spnjaya king, in the Rigveda. He is mentioned as a devotee of the fire cult, and as victorious over the Turvaśa king and the Vpcīvants. According to Zimmer, his name was Abhyāvartin Cāyamāna Pārthava ('descendant of Ppthu'), but Hillebrandt recognizes this as doubtful, though he none the less places the Spnjayas to the west of the Indus with Divodāsa. What is more important is to note that the name suggests connexion with the Bharata Devavāta, and as Kurus and Spnjayas were closely connected this is not immaterial.

¹ Rv. iv. 15, 4.

² Rv. vi. 27, 7.

³ Altindisches Leben, 133, 134.

⁴ Vedische Mythologie, 1, 105, 106.

⁵ Satapatha Brāhmaņa, ii. 4, 4, 5. Cf. Oldenberg, Buddha, 402, 405; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 153.

Daivāpa, 'descendant of Devāpi,' is the patronymic of Indrota in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ and the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa.² No connexion can be traced with the Devāpi of the Rigveda.³

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1 xiii. 5, 4, 1.
2 iii. 40, 1.
3 x. 98. See Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 240,
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Daivāvṛdha, 'descendant of Devāvṛdha,' is the patronymic of Babhru in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (vii. 34).

Daivo-dāsi, 'descendant of Divodāsa,' is the patronymic of Pratardana in the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa¹ and the Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad.² It is impossible to ascertain whether the famous Divodāsa is meant.

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1 xxvi. 5. 2 iii. 1. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 214.
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Doṣā, 'evening,' is frequently referred to from the Rigveda¹ onwards,² usually as contrasted with uṣas, 'dawn.' In the Chāndogya Upaniṣad³ the word is contrasted with $pr\bar{a}tar$, 'early.' See also Ahan.

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<sup>1</sup> i. 34, 3; 179, 1; ii. 8, 3; iv. 2, 8; | <sup>2</sup> Av. vi. 1, 1; Nirukta, iv. 17. v. 5, 6; 32, 11; vi. 5, 2, etc. | <sup>3</sup> vi. 13, 1.
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Doha, 'milking,' is a common word in the Atharvaveda¹ and later.² Reference is made in the Sūtras³ to the sāyaṃ-doha, 'evening milking,' and the prātar-doha, 'morning milking.' Dohana has the same sense.⁴ See also Go.

1 iv. 11, 4. 9. 12; v. 17, 17; viii. 9, 15 (where five milkings are referred to metaphorically). In Rv. x. 42, 2, the literal sense is found.

² Vājasaneyi Samhitā, viii. 62; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 1, 10, 2; ii. 2, 9, 9.

3 Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iv. 2, 38, etc.

4 Rv. viii. 12, 32; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, ix. 2, 3, 30; Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iv. 2, 37, etc.

Daure-śravas, 'descendant of Dūreśravas,' is the patronymic of the priest Pṛthuśravas, who officiated at the snake sacrifice described in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xxv. \tau5, 3).

Daure-śruta, 'descendant of Dūreśruta,' is the patronymic of the priest Timirgha, who officiated at the snake sacrifice described in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xxv. 15, 3).

Daur-gaha. See Durgaha.

Dauḥ-ṣanti ('descendant of Duḥṣanta') is the patronymic of Bharata in the Aitareya (viii. 23) and Śatapatha (xiii. 5, 4, 11) Brāhmaṇas.

Dyutāna Māruta ('descendant of the Maruts') is the name of a divine being invoked in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā¹ and the Taittirīya Saṃhitā,² and also mentioned in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā.³ In the Śatapatha⁴ Brāhmaṇa the name is explained to mean Vāyu, while in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa⁵ he seems to be regarded as the author of a Sāman (chant). He is treated as a Ḥṣi by the Anukramaṇī, which credits him with the authorship of a hymn of the Rigveda (viii. 96).

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1 v. 27.
2 v. 5, 9, 4. Cf. vi. 2, 10, 4.
3 xv. 7.
4 iii. 6, 1, 16.
5 xvii. 1, 7. Cf. vi. 4, 2.
Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie,
3, 311; Indische Studien, 3, 220.
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Dyumna, according to Pischel, denotes 'raft' in one passage of the Rigveda.²

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<sup>1</sup> Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgen- <sup>2</sup> viii. 19, 14. ländischen Gesellschaft, 35, 720 et seq.
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Dyūta, 'dicing,' is mentioned in the Atharvaveda¹ and the Sūtras.² See Akṣa.

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    1 xii. 3, 46.
    2 Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 6, 2;
    1 Lātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iv. 10, 23, etc.
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Dyotana is, according to Sāyaṇa, the name of a prince in the Rigveda.¹ This is probably correct, though the word may also² be interpreted as denoting 'glorification'; but it is not clear what relation existed between Dyotana and the other persons mentioned in the same passage, Vetasu, Daśoṇi, Tūtuji, and Tugra.

¹ vi. 20, 8.

2 As by Griffith, Hymns of the Rigveda,
x, 380.

Cf. Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen
Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 55, 328.

Drapsa is a common word from the Rigveda onwards¹ for a 'drop': according to Sāyaṇa,² a 'thick drop' as opposed to stoka, a 'small drop.' Hence there frequently occurs the expression dadhi-drapsa,' drop of curds.'³ In the Rigveda⁴ the word normally denotes the thick drops of Soma or the Soma itself.

In two passages ⁵ Roth ⁶ sees the sense of 'banner,' which is adopted by Oldenberg. ⁷ Geldner, ⁸ on the other hand, considers that 'dust' is meant, but this interpretation is not very probable. Max Müller ⁹ renders the word 'rain-drop' in one of the passages.

- 1 Rv. i. 94, II (perhaps a 'drop' of fire); v. 63, 4 ('rain-drop'); vii. 33, II (=retas); Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. I, 2, 6; drapsin ('thick-flowing'), xi. 4, I, 15.
- ² Taittirīya Samhitā, 1, p. 70, 7. Cf. the epithet uru-drapsa, Taittirīya Samhitā, iii. 3, 10, 2; Sāyaṇa, on Av. xviii. 4, 18, takes drapsa to mean 'drops of curd'; so Agnisvāmin on Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iii. 2, 4.

³ Satapatha Brāhmaņa, ix. 2, 3,

40. 4 ix. 78, 4; 85, 10; 89, 2; 97, 56; 106, 8; x. 11, 4; 17, 11. 12. Cf. Taittiriya Samhitā, iii. 3, 9. 1.

5 iv. 13, 2, and drapsin in i. 64, 2.

⁶ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. satvan; Böhtlingk, Dictionary, s.v. drapsa, drapsin.

7 Sacred Books of the East, 46, 357:

Rgveda-Noten, 1, 64, 65.

8 Vedische Studien, 3, 57, 58; Rigveda, Glossar, 88.

⁹ Sacred Books of the East, 32, 104. Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 80, with reference to Rv. i. 64, 2.

Cf. Macdonell, op. cit., pp. 105, 113.

Drāpi occurs several times in the Rigveda¹ in the sense of 'mantle' or 'cloak.'² Sāyaṇa, however, renders the word by 'coat of mail' (kavaca). This seems needless, but none of the passages are very decisive one way or the other.

¹ i. 25, 13; 116, 10; iv. 53, 2; ix. 86, 14; 100, 9; Av. iii. 13, 1.

² Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 5, 472; Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 333.

³ Cf. Max Müller, Ancient Sanskrit Literature, 536; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 201, 202.

Dru denotes a vessel made of wood,¹ and in particular the vessel used at the Soma sacrifice,² perhaps, as Hillebrandt³ suggests, to catch the Soma juice when running through the sieve. In the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa⁴ the word simply means 'wood.'

1 Rv. i. 161, 1; v. 86, 3; viii. 66, II; in x. 101, 10, the mortar seems meant. In v. 86, 3, Böhtlingk takes it to denote a 'wooden handle.'

² ix. 1, 2; 65, 6; 98, 2.

3 Vedische Mythologie, 1, 191, 192.

4 i. 3, 9, 1. So often in compounds, e.g., Rv. ii. 7, 6; vi. 12, 4, etc.

Dru-ghaṇa is found in the Mudgala hymn of the Rigveda¹ and in the Atharvaveda.² The sense is uncertain. Yāska³ renders it as a 'ghana made of wood,' probably, as Roth⁴ takes it, meaning a 'club of wood.' Geldner⁵ thinks that it was a wooden bull used by Mudgala as a substitute for a second bull when he wanted to join in a race. But this interpretation of the legend is very improbable.⁶ Whitney¹ translates the word as 'tree-smiter' in the Atharvaveda, quoting Sāyaṇa, who explains it as a 'cutting instrument,' so called because trees are struck with it.

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1 x. 102, 9.
2 vii. 28, 1.
3 Nirukta, ix. 23.
4 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
5 Vedische Studien, 2, 3, 4.
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46, 462; Bloomfield, ibid., 48, 456; Franke, Vienna Oriental Journal, 8, 342.

7 Translation of the Atharvaveda,

Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft.

6 Cf. von Bradke, Zeitschrift der 407.

Dru-pada, a 'wooden pillar' or 'post,' is several times referred to in the Rigveda¹ and later.² Sunaḥśepa was bound to three posts for sacrifice.³ Thieves, there is some evidence to show, were tied to posts as a penalty for stealing.⁴

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1 i. 24, 13; iv. 32, 23.

2 Av. vi. 63, 3; 115, 2; xix. 47, 9;

Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xx. 20.

3 Rv. i. 24, 13.
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Druma, 'tree,' is not found until the later period in the Şadvimsa Brāhmana (v. 11) and the Nirukta (iv. 19; v. 26; ix. 23).

Druvaya, 'wooden,' is used in the Atharvaveda¹ as an epithet of the drum.

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1 v. 20, 2. Cf. xi. 1, 12, where it is an epithet of upawasa, 'blower,' possibly 'bellows'; but the manuscripts in part read dhruvaye, and the Paippaläda has druye.
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Dru-han, 'wood-cutter,' seems to be meant by the word druhantara in the Rigveda, where it is usually taken as druhamtara, 'fiend-overpowering.' But as an epithet of paraśu, 'axe,' the other sense ('mighty wood-cutter')² is more probable.⁸

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of the comparative. See Oldenberg, Sacred Books of the East, 46, 132.

the word should have the accentuation

of the comparative. See Oldenberg, Sacred Books of the East, 46, 132.

of the comparative. See Oldenberg, Sacred Books of the East, 46, 132.
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Druhyu is the name of a people mentioned several times in the Rigveda. In one passage it occurs, in the plural, with the Yadus, Turvaśas, Anus, and Pūrus, suggesting that these are the famous five peoples of the Rigveda. Again, the Druhyu king shared in the defeat of his allies by Sudās, and appears to have perished in the waters. In a second passage Druhyu, Anu, Turvaśa, and Yadu are all mentioned in the singular, while in another Pūru and Druhyu occur. From the tribal grouping it is probable that the Druhyus were a north-western people, and the later tradition of the Epic connects Gāndhāra and Druhyu.

⁶ Roth, Zur Litteratur und Geschichte des Weda, 131-133.

7 Pargiter, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1910, 49.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 205; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 140.

Drona denotes in the Rigveda¹ a 'wooden trough,' and more specifically it designates in the plural vessels used for holding Soma.² The great wooden reservoir for Soma is called a Drona-kalaśa.³ The altar was sometimes made in the form of a Drona.⁴

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<sup>1</sup> vi. 2, 8; 37, 2; 44, 20; ix. 93, 1;
Nirukta, v. 26.
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Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xviii. 21; xix, 27; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 17. 32. Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 3, 17, etc.

⁴ Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 4, 7; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xxi. 4; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. 7, 2, 8.

Droṇāhāva is used as an epithet of Avata, 'well,' in the Rigveda, apparently in the sense of 'having wooden buckets' with reference to the drawing up of water.

1 x. 101, 7. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 157.

Dvādaśa, 'consisting of twelve,' is used of the year in the Rigveda (vii. 103, 9). See Nakṣatra.

1 Cf. Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 645 et seq.

Dvāpara. See Akṣa and Yuga.

¹ i. 108, S.

² Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 122, 125; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 258 et seq.

³ vii. 18.

⁴ viii. 10, 5.

^t vi. 46, 8.

² ix. 3, 1; 15, 7; 28, 4; 30, 4; 67, 14, etc. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 280.

³ Taittirīya Samhitā, iii. 2, 1, 2;

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Dvār is frequently used from the Rigveda¹ onwards² to denote the 'door' of a house. The later form, Dvāra, has the same sense.³ Cf. Gṛha. The 'door-fastener' is called Dvārapidhāna in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.⁴

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1 i. 13, 6.

2 Av. viii. 3, 22; xiv. 1, 63; Vāja-
saneyi Samhitā, xxx. 10; Šatapatha
Brāhmaņa, xi. 1, 1, 2; xiv. 3, 1, 13,
etc.

3 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 1, 19;
iv. 3, 5, 9; 6,
Av. x. 8, 43, 1
nine openings,'
4 xi. 1, 1, 1.
posts,' in Lāṭ
i. 3, 1; ii. 3, 9.
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iv. 3, 5, 9; 6, 7, 9; xi. 4, 4, 2, etc. Av. x. 8, 43, has nava-dvāra, 'having nine openings,' of the body.

4 xi. 1, 1, 1. Cf. dvāra-bāhū, 'doorposts,' in Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, i. 3, 1; ii. 3, 9.

Dvāra-pa, 'door-keeper,' is only found in a metaphorical sense in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (i. 30), where Viṣṇu is called the 'doorkeeper' of the gods, and in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (iii. 13, 6).

Dvi-gat Bhārgava ('descendant of Bhṛgu') is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xiv. 9) as the seer of a Sāman or Chant, by means of which he twice went to the heavenly world.

Dvi-ja, 'twice-born,' as an epithet of the Āryans generally, or of the Brahmins in particular, is not found in Vedic literature except in a quite obscure verse of the Atharvaveda.¹

1 xix. 71, 1. Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 1008; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 204. Neither dvi
ne. janman nor dvi-jāti occurs early, and the idea is not in this form an early one.

Dvi-pād, 'two-footed,' 'biped,' denotes man, as opposed to quadrupeds, from the Rigveda¹ onwards.²

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<sup>1</sup> i. 49, 3; iii. 62, 14; viii. 27, 12; Samhitā, viii. 30; ix. 31; xiii. 17; x. 97, 20; 117, 8.

<sup>2</sup> Av. ii. 34, 1; x. 1, 24; Vājasaneyi
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Dvi-bandhu is in an obscure hymn of the Rigveda, according to Roth and Grassmann, the name of a man, while Ludwig renders it as a simple adjective meaning of double kinship.

¹ x. 61, 17.
2 St. Petersburg Dictionary.
3 Wörterbuch, s.v., and Translation of the Rigveda, 2, 475.
4 Translation of the Rigveda, 2, 643, and 5, 526.

Dvyopaśa] BATTLE-ASS AND MARE-ISLAND-PANTHER 387

Dvi-rāja (neut.), 'conflict between two kings,' or 'battle,' is mentioned in the Atharvaveda (v. 20, 9). Cf. Dāśarājña.

Dvi-retas, 'having double seed,' is an epithet of both the ass¹ and the mare.²

Dvīpa, 'island,' is mentioned in the Rigveda¹ and later.² But there is no reason to imagine that the islands referred to were other than sandbanks in the great rivers, Indus or Ganges.³ Vedic literature knows nothing of the system of geography according to which the earth consists of four, seven, or thirteen Dvīpas grouped round Mount Meru.

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    i. 169, 3.
    Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xiii. 2; Śata- yana Śrauta Sütra, i. 6, 10.
    Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 256.
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Dvīpin, 'panther' or 'leopard,' is mentioned in the Atharvaveda and the Maitrāyanī Saṃhitā.

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1 Lit., 'insulated'—i.e., 'spotted.'
2 iv. 8, 7; vi. 38, 2; xix. 49, 4, in every case associated with the tiger.

3 ii. 1, 9.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, So.
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Dvaita-vana, 'descendant of Dvitavana,' is the patronymic of Dhvasan, the king of the Matsyas, whose Aśvamedha, or 'horse sacrifice,' is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (xiii. 5, 4, 9).

Dvy-opaśa. See Opaśa.

Aitareya Brāhmaņa, iv. 9; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, vi. 3, 1, 23. Cf. Gardabha.
 Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmana, vi. 1, 4.

DH.

Dhana, 'prize,' is often found in the Rigveda,1 probably the prize in racing rather than the 'booty' in battle. It also denotes2 the 'stake' at dicing. In some passages it possibly means the 'contest' itself.3 More generally it denotes 'wealth' or 'gift.'4 But it sometimes expresses 'booty,'5 probably from the notion of 'wealth' rather than of 'prize.'

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1 Rv. i. 81, 3; vi. 45, 2; viii. 80, 8;
                                            viii. 5, 26; 8, 21; 49, 9; 50, 9; x. 48,
ix. 53, 2; 109, 10. Cf. Geldner, Ve-
                                            5, etc.
dische Studien, I, 120; Pischel, ibid., I,
                                               4 Rv. i. 42, 6; x. 18, 2; 84, 7; Av.
                                            i. 15, 3; ii. 7, 4; iii. 15, 2; v. 19, 9;
                                            vi. 81, 1; vii. 81, 4; viii. 5, 16, etc.
  2 Rv. x. 34, 10; Av. iv. 38, 3.
                                               <sup>5</sup> Rv. i. 74, 3; 157, 2, etc.
  8 Rv. i. 31, 6; v. 35, 7; vii. 38, 8;
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Dhana-dhanī, a 'treasure house,' is mentioned in the Taittirīya Āraņyaka (x. 67).

Dhanisthā ('very rich'), used in the plural, is the later name 1 of the lunar mansion (Naksatra) Śravisthā.

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1 Sāntikalpa, 13; Śānkhāyana Grhya Sūtra, i. 26.
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Dhanu (fem.), 'sandbank,' occurs several times in the Rigveda, but only metaphorically of the clouds in the atmosphere. Dhanū is found in the Atharvaveda,2 where it seems to denote a sandbag used to prevent bleeding.3 Cf. Dhanvan.

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1 i. 33, 4; 144, 5; viii 3, 19; x. 4, 3;
                                        Whitney, Translation of the Atharva-
                                        veda, 18; Bloomfield, Hymns of the
27, 17.
 2 i. 17, 4.
                                        Atharvaveda, 259, 260.
 3 Weber, Indische Studien, 4, 411;
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Dhanus, the 'bow,' frequently mentioned in the Rigveda¹ and later,2 was the chief weapon of the Vedic Indian.3 The last act of the funeral rite included the removal of the bow from

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9; 125, 6.
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² Av. iv. 4, 6; 6, 6; v. 18, 8; vii. 50, 9; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvi. 10; Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa, vii. 5, 6; Aitareya

¹ viii. 72, 4; 77, 11; ix. 99, 1; x. 18, | Brāhmaṇa, vii. 14; Śatapatha Brāh mana, i. 5, 4, 6; v. 3, 1, 11, etc.

³ Rv. vi. 75, 2. Practically no other weapon plays any substantial part in Vedic warfare.

the right hand of the dead man.⁴ The weapon was composed of a stout staff bent into a curved shape (vakra),⁵ and of a bowstring $(Jy\bar{a})$ made of a strip of cowhide⁶ which joined the ends. The tips of the bow, when the string was fastened, were called \bar{A} rtn \bar{i} . Relaxed when not in actual use, the bow was specially strung up when needed for shooting.⁷ The stages of the process are given in detail in the V \bar{a} jasaneyi Sa \bar{a} hit \bar{a} :⁸ the stringing $(\bar{a}$ -tan) of the bow, the placing $(prati-dh\bar{a})$ of the arrow, the bending $(\bar{a}$ -yam) of the bow, and the shooting (as). The arrow was discharged from the ear,⁹ and is hence called karna-yoni,¹⁰ 'having the ear as its point of origin.'¹⁰ The making of bows was a regular profession (dhanus- $k\bar{a}$ ra,¹¹ dhanus- $k\bar{r}$ t). For the arrow see I \bar{s} 1, and for the handguard Hastaghna.

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4 Rv. x. 18, 9.
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method is to draw to the breast—e.g., Iliad, iv. 123.

10 Rv. ii. 24, 8.

11 xxx. 7. 12 xvi. 46.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 298, 299: Hopkins, op. cit., 13, 270 et seq. The Epic bow is about $5\frac{1}{2}$ feet, and the arrow 3 feet in length.

1. Dhanvan, 'bow,' is found frequently in the Rigveda¹ and later.² It also occurs in the compounds iṣu-dhanva, 'bow and arrow,'³ ājya-dhanva,⁴ 'having clarified butter for its bow,'⁵ adhijya-dhanva, 'bow with string fixed,' etc. Cf. Dhanus.

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<sup>1</sup> ii. 24, 8; 33, 10; vi. 59, 7; 75, <sup>2</sup>; viii. 20, 2; ix. 69, 1; Nirukta, ix. 17.

<sup>2</sup> Av. i. 3, 9; iv. 4, 7; xi. 9, 1, etc.;
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- 3 Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vii. 19; işudhanvin, Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 1, 2.
- 4 Aitareya Brāhmaņa, i. 25.
- 5 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, ix. 1, 1, 6.

2. Dhanvan, 'desert,' is repeatedly mentioned in the Rigveda¹ and later.² Death from thirst in the desert was not rare,³ and

⁵ Av. iv. 6, 4.

⁶ Rv. vi. 75, 11; Av. i. 2, 3.

⁷ Rv. x. 166, 3; Av. vi. 42, 1.

⁸ xvi. 22.

⁹ Rv. vi. 75, 2 et seq. So also in the Epic, Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 271. The Homeric

² Av. i. 3, 9; iv. 4, 7; xi. 9, 1, etc.; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvi. 9, etc.

¹ ii. 38, 7; iii. 45, 1; iv. 17, 2; 19, 7; 33, 7; v. 53, 6; 83, 10, etc. In i. 116, 4, the strand of the ocean (Samudra) is mentioned.

² Av. v. 13, 1; vi. 100, 1; vii. 41, 1, etc.

³ Aitareya Brāhmaņa, ii. 19.

the value of a spring in the desert was fully appreciated.⁴ The great desert east of the Sindhu (Indus) and the Sutudrī (Sutlej) is possibly referred to in one hymn of the Rigveda.⁵

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<sup>4</sup> Rv. x. 4, 1. Cf. vi. 34, 4, etc.; Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 47, Av. i. 6, 4; xix. 2, 2.

<sup>5</sup> x. 86, 20.
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Dhamani, 'reed,' appears to denote 'pipe' in a passage of the Rigveda¹ and in a citation appearing in the Nirukta.² In the Atharvaveda³ it denotes, perhaps, 'artery' or 'vein,' or more generally 'intestinal channel,' being coupled in some passages⁴ with Hirā.

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1 ii. 11, 8. 2 vi. 24. 4 i. 17, 3; vii. 35, 2. 3 i. 17, 23; ii. 33, 6; vi. 90, 2; Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvii. 35, 2. Cf. Chāndogya Upanişad, iii. 19, 2.
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Dharuṇa in one passage of the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā (viii. 51) denotes a 'sucking calf.'

Dharma, Dharman, are the regular words, the latter in the Rigveda, and both later, for 'law' or 'custom.' But there is very little evidence in the early literature as to the administration of justice or the code of law followed. On the other hand, the Dharma Sūtras contain full particulars.

(1) Criminal Law.—The crimes recognized in Vedic literature vary greatly in importance, while there is no distinction adopted in principle between real crimes and what now are regarded as fanciful bodily defects or infringements of merely

¹ i. 22, 18; 164, 43, 50; iii. 3, 1; 17, 1; 60, 6; v. 26, 6; 63, 7; 72, 2, etc.; Av. xiv. 1, 51; Văjasaneyi Samhită, x. 29, etc. Cf. Geldner, Rigveda, Glossar, 90.

² Dharma is found in Av. xi. 7, 17; xii. 5, 7; xviii. 3, 1; Taittirīya Sam-

hitā, iii. 5, 2, 2; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xv. 6; xx. 9; xxx. 6, etc.

³ See Jolly, Recht und Sitte; Foy, Die königliche Gewalt nach den altindischen Rechtsbüchern; Bühler, Sacred Books of the East, 2 and 14.

conventional practices.⁴ The crimes enumerated include the slaying of an embryo (bhrūna),⁵ the slaying of a man (vīra),⁶ and the slaying of a Brahmin,⁷ a much more serious crime. Treachery is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa⁸ as being punishable by death, as it was punished later.⁹ But there is no trace of an organized criminal justice vested either in the king or in the people. There still seems to have prevailed the system of wergeld (Vaira), which indicates that criminal justice remained in the hands of those who were wronged. In the Sūtras,¹⁰ on the other hand, the king's peace is recognized as infringed by crimes, a penalty being paid to him, or, according to the Brahminical textbooks, to the Brahmins. It may there-

4 Compare the list in Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iv. 1, 9; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxxi. 7; Kapiṣṭhala Saṃbitā, xlvii. 7; and Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 8, 11 (see Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwindtschaftsnamen, 579 et seq.), where bodily defects (bad nails and discoloured teeth), marrying a younger daughter when her elder sister was unmarried, ire coupled with murder, though not equated with it. See also Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 11, 5, where Aśvapati's list of sinners includes a drinker of intoxicating liquor, a thief, and one who does not maintain a sacrificial fire.

⁵ Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vi. 5, 10, 2; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxvii. 9; xxxi. 7; Kapiṣṭhala Saṃhitā, xli. 7; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iv. 1, 9; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 8, 12; Taittirīya Āraṇyaka, ii. 7, 8; 8, 3; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iv. 1, 22; Nirukta, vi. 27; Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad, iii. 1. Cf. Av. vi. 112. 3; 113, 2; Weber, Indische Studien, 9, 481; 10, 66; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 522; American Journal of Philology, 17, 430.

6 Kāṭhaka, xxxi. 7; Kapiṣṭhala, loc. cit.; Maitrāyaṇī, loc. cit.; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, loc. cit.; Vājasaneyi Saṇihitā, xxx. 5, and cf. Vaira. For cases of justifiable homicide, see, e.g., Vasiṣṭha Dharma Sūtra, iii. 15-18. Cf. also the story of Vṛśa Jāna in

Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 3, 12, where the death of a boy by careless driving is mentioned, and the king is reproached for it by his Purohita. They dispute as to the guilt, and, according to one version (see Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 66, 67), the Iksvākus decide that the action was sinful, and required expiation.

7 Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 5, 1, 2; v. 3, 12, 1; vi. 5, 10, 2; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxxi. 7 (where the Kapisthala has brahma-jya, 'oppressor of a Brahmin'); Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 2, 8, 12. The Taittiriya Āranyaka, x. 38, declares that the slaying of a Brahmin alone is truly murder, and the Satapatha Brahmana, xiii. 3, 1, 1 et seq., states that the sin of murdering a Brahmin can be expiated only by the performance of an Asvamedha, or 'horse sacrifice'-the ne plus ultra of human generosity to Brahmins. See also Nirukta, vi. 27. The later tradition also interprets bhruna as Brahmin (see Sankara, cited in Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 410, n.; Keith, Sankhayana Āraņyaka, 30, n. 5; Konow, Sāmavidhana Brahmana, 46, n. 1, and cf. Vasistha Dharma Sūtra, xx. 23).

8 xiv. 6, 8, the story of Kutsa.

9 Jolly, op. cit., 127.

10 See references in Bühler, Sacred Books of the East, 14, 345.

fore reasonably be conjectured that the royal power of jurisdiction steadily increased; the references in the Satapatha Brāhmana to the king as wielding punishment (Danda) confirm this supposition. Whether, as the analogy of other systems suggests, the king was assisted in his judicial duties, as he undoubtedly was later, by assessors, presumably of the Brahmin caste, cannot be made out clearly.11

The procedure adopted in deciding cases is quite uncertain. In the Chandogya Upanisad 12 the ordeal of the red-hot axe is mentioned as applied in an accusation of theft. It must apparently be understood to have been inflicted by the direction of the king. But no other judicial ordeal is known to Vedic literature (see Divya). The punishment of theft was in some cases at least death, probably when the thief was taken redhanded; 13 in other cases binding to posts was the penalty, 14 presumably accompanied by the return of the stolen goods. In the Chandogya Upanisad 15 the list of sins given as apparently equal in wickedness is stealing gold, drinking spirits, defiling 1 Guru's bed, and the murder of a Brahmin.

(2) Civil Law.—There is little recorded as to civil law in Vedic literature. The relations of the family and the question of family property are dealt with under Urvara, Ksetra, Pati; succession and partition of property are treated under Daya. As regards the transfer of chattels-for land as transferable inter vivos is hardly yet recognized, save exceptionally as a sacrificial fee (Daksinā), and then disapproved 16—the recognized modes are gift (Dana) and barter or sale (Kraya), which includes exchange. Original acquisition of land was no doubt brought

¹¹ Compare the story of the death of the child killed by Tryaruna, and the decision of the Iksvākus referred to in n. 6 above, and the notice in Kāthaka Samhitā, xxvii. 4, that a Rājanya is adhyaksa, when a Sūdra is punished (han).

¹² vi. 16. Cf. Weber, Indian Literature, 72, 73.

¹³ Gautama Dharma Sūtra, xii. 43; Āpastamba Dharma Sūtra, i. 9, 25, 4.

¹⁴ See Av. xix. 47, 9; 50, 1, and Taskara.

¹⁵ v. 10, 9. Another list is given in Taittirīya Āraņyaka, x. 65, which includes slaying a Brahmin, defiling a Guru's bed, stealing a cow, drinking Surā, and killing an embryo, along with irregularities in offering a Śrāddha, 'water offering to the dead.' Cf. also Nirukta, vi. 27, for a list of seven. Many more appear in the Samavidhana Brāhmaṇa, but that work cannot claim to be a Brāhmaņa proper.

¹⁶ Šatapatha Brāhmana, xiii. 7, 1, 13.

about by occupation and apportionment among the tribesmen,17 while chattels were acquired by taking possession of them, provided that they were found on one's own land or on unoccupied land, and did not belong to any other person originally. The Sūtras 18 contain rules for the disposal of lost property, which tend to give it to the king, with the deduction of a percentage for the finder, unless the latter is a Brahmin, who keeps it all. As for contract, save in regard to moneylending (for which see Rna), practically nothing is to be gathered from Vedic literature, doubtless because of the primitive conditions prevailing in that early period. Much of the labour, which would in a more developed society have been done by workers for hire, would be performed by slaves (cf. Dasa, Śūdra), while the technical workers of the village—of whom long lists are given in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā 10 and the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa 20—may have been recompensed not by any sum based on each piece of work done, but by fixed allowances, much as the village servants are in modern times.21 But this must remain a matter of conjecture, and it is uncertain what exact status the carpenter or smith held in the village. Similarly it is impossible to trace in the early literature any legal theory or practice as to torts, but rules as to penalties for insults appear in the Sūtras.22

Very little is recorded as to procedure. The list ²³ of victims at the Purusamedha, or 'horse sacrifice,' includes a *praśnin*, an *abhi-praśnin*, and a *praśna-vivāka*, in whom it is not unreasonable to see the plaintiff, the defendant, and the arbitrator or judge: the terms may refer to what is probably an early

¹⁷ Cf. Cæsar, Bellum Gallicum, iv. 1; vi. 22; Tacitus, Germania, 26, for Germany; Mommsen, Römisches Staatsrecht, 3, 1, 21, for the Roman hortus; and the Greek κλήρος, Lang, Homer and the Epic, 236-241; Ridgeway, Journal of Hellenic Studies, 6, 319 et seq.; Grote, History of Greece, 2, 36, 37. See also Pollock and Maitland, History of English Law, 2, 337 et seq.; Baden Powell, Village Communities in India, 6 et seq.; 131.

¹⁸ Gautama Dharma Sūtra, x. 36 et seq.

¹⁹ XXX.

²⁰ iii. 4. See Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 426 et seq.; Weber, Indische Streifen, 1, 75 et seq.

²¹ Cf. Maine, Village Communities, 127, 175; Baden Powell, op. cit., 124 et seq.; Grote, History of Greece, 2, 36, n. 2.

²² Cf. Jolly, op. cit., 126-128.

²³ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 10; Taittiriya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 6, 1.

form of judicial procedure, a voluntary arbitration. The same idea may be conveyed by the word madhyama-śī, 'lying in the midst,' which occurs in the Rigveda,²⁴ and which Roth,²⁵ followed by Zimmer,²⁶ understood to mean an arbitrator or judge, the expression being derived from the judge acting with other judicial persons,²⁷ and being surrounded by the assembly of the people. But this interpretation is uncertain; Whitney²⁸ thinks that the word merely alludes to a chief round whom his men encamp. The king is later the chief civil judge, and may presumably have been so earlier, no doubt in conjunction with the elders of the tribe, but for this we are reduced to conjecture.²⁰

The use of witnesses as evidence is uncertain (see Jñātṛ), and the ordeal is not recorded as deciding any civil matter except the dispute between Vatsa and his rival as to the true Brahminical descent of the former, which was settled by his walking unharmed through the flame of a fire.³⁰ But it is probable on analogy that the ordeal may have been used for the purpose of deciding disputes. Whether the oath was so used cannot be certainly shown. It appears, however, that a Brahmin was preferred in legal matters to a non-Brahmin.³¹

There are very few references to police officials: no doubt the king employed some of his dependents to execute sentences and arrest offenders (see Ugra, Jīvagrbh).

(3) Morality.—It is convenient to notice under this head

²⁴ x. 97, 12=Av. iv. 9, 4=Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xii. 86. Madhyamašīvan, in the Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 408, is of quite doubtful sense.

²⁵ Siebenzig Lieder, 174. This fact renders doubtful Lanman's view (Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 159) that the St. Petersburg Dictionary, in giving intercessor as the interpretation, did not mean 'mediator,' but 'adversary.'

26 Allindisches Leben, 180.

²⁷ As, apparently, in early Germany. See Cæsar, Bellum Gallicum, vi. 23; Tacitus, Germania, 11. 12; Coulanges, Recherches sur quelques problèmes d'histoire, 361 et seq.

28 See n. 25.

29 Cf. the later Parisad, Gautama Dharma Sūtra, xxviii. 48. 49; Baudhā-yana Dharma Sūtra, i. 1, 7-16; Vasistha Dharma Sūtra, xi. 5-7, 20; Jolly, op. cit., 132 et seq. The parallels from other Āryan peoples suggest the use of assessors, as in the Anglo-Saxon courts of the shire and hundred. Cf. Sohm, Altdeutsches Reichs- und Gerichtsverfassung, 6 et seq.

30 Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa, xiv. 6, 6.

31 Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 5, 11, 9, which seems to refer either to giving evidence for or passing judgment on a case when both a Brahmin and a non-Brahmin are engaged.

several points bearing on the moral condition of the people:
(a) the exposure of children; (b) the exposure of the aged;
(c) prostitution; (d) adultery; (e) incest.

(a) The exposure of girl infants is asserted by Zimmer³² on the strength of a passage in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā,³³ but it seems clear that the passage has been misunderstood,³⁴ and that it refers merely to laying the child aside, not exposing it, while a boy was lifted up. It is, however, true that the birth of a girl was not at all popular, not an unnatural sentiment in an early society, and paralleled among other Āryan peoples.³⁵

(b) The exposure of the aged is also inferred by Zimmer³⁰ from a passage of the Rigveda,³⁷ and from the mention of persons exposed (ud-hitāḥ) in the Atharvaveda.³⁸ The latter passage may well refer merely to the bodies being exposed after death to the elements (as is done by the Parsīs). The former passage merely refers to the individual case of some person who may have been cast out, and proves absolutely nothing as to a habitual or recognized custom, nor can such a custom be inferred from, e.g., the legend of Cyavāna.

(c) That prostitution existed in Rigvedic times is certain, but its extent is disputed. Brotherless girls were frequently reduced to becoming prostitutes;³⁹ the putting away of an illegitimate child is referred to in the Rigveda;⁴⁰ besides the

32 Altindisches Leben, 319, 320. Cf. also Weber, Indische Studien, 5, 54, 260; Kaegi, Der Rigveda, n. 49; Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 389, 390; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda. 6, 142; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 48.

33 xxvii. 9. Cf. Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 5, 10, 3; Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra,

xv. 17, 12; Nirukta iii. 4.

34 Böhtlingk, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 44, 494-496. The traditional rendering of the passages is not that it refers to exposure, but to getting rid of a daughter on her marriage.

35 Av. viii. 6, 25; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vii. 15; Max Müller, Ancient Sanskrit Literature, 409; Zimmer, op. cit.,

320; Schrader, op. cit., 390.

²⁶ Op. cit., 327, 328. Strabo, pp. 513, 517, 520, reports the practice as prevailing in Iran, Bactria, and the Massagetae; it prevailed among the Norsemen, Weinhold, Altnordisches Leben, 473, and conceivably among the early Romans (depontani senes, Cicero, Pro Roscio, 100; but this and other cases may be really instances of the ritual casting into water of the wornout vegetation spirit for the purpose of reviving it). See Kaegi, op. cit., n. 50; Schrader, op. cit., 379, n.

37 viii. 51, 2.

38 xviii. 2, 34. See Anagnidagdha.

³⁹ Rv. i. 124, 7; iv. 5, 5; Av. i. 17, 1; and cf. Ayogū.

40 ii. 29, 1. Cf. Max Müller, op. cit., 26.

terms puniscalī⁴¹ and mahānagnī,⁴² which undoubtedly mean 'harlot,' there are other clear references to prostitution;⁴³ and expressions like kumārī-putra, 'son of a maiden,'⁴⁴ and the 'son of an unmarried girl' (agrū), spoken of in the Rigveda⁴⁵ as exposed and attacked by animals, point in the same direction. The Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā⁴⁶ seems to recognize prostitution as a profession. Pischel⁴⁷ sees many references to Hetairai in the Rigveda, which as Geldner⁴⁸ insists reflects in its imagery the court life of Indian princes. But the correctness of the view of these two scholars on this point is not by any means certain.⁴⁹

(d) Adultery was generally regarded among Āryan peoples as a serious offence against the husband of the woman affected. We accordingly find in the legal literature of India traces of the rule that an adulterer can be slain with impunity if taken in the act. Weber, however, has adduced some material indicating an indifference to these matters in Vedic times, and Ludwig 52 has adopted the same view. But, as Delbrück 53 has clearly shown, the evidence is not convincing; the cited prescriptions 54 forbidding connexion with another man's wife during a certain rite do not imply that such connexion would otherwise be allowed: the ritual of the Varuṇa-praghāsas, 55 when a wife names her lover or lovers, seems originally to have been a solemn means of banishing the evil brought on a family by a wife's fall; Yājñavalkya's famous saying 56 that no one

41 Av. xv. 2, etc.

42 Av. xiv. 1, 36; xx. 136, 5 et seq.; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, i. 27. Cf. nagnā

in Av. v. 7, 8.

43 Rv. i. 167, 4 (Wilson, Translation of the Rigveda, 2, xvii), can hardly be so interpreted; see Zimmer, op. cit., 332, n. Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 277, interprets it as a reference to polyandry, but this is still more doubtful; but see Rv. viii. 17, 7.

44 Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 6; Tait-

tirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 2, 1.

45 iv. 19, 9; 30, 16. 19; ii. 13, 12; 15, 17; Zimmer, op. cit., 334, 335.

46 Apparently this is meant by the epithets atişkadvarī (apaskadvarī in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 11, 1),

atītvarī, vijarjarā, in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 15.

47 Vedische Studien, 1, xxv; 196, 275, 299, 369, etc.; 2, 120.

48 Ibid., 2, 154.

49 Cf. Winternitz, Geschichte der indischen Litteratur, 1,60; Jolly, op. cit., 48. 50 Leist, Altarisches Jus Gentium, 276

et seq., 309.

51 Indische Studien, 10, 83 et seq.

52 Op. cit., 5, 573.

53 Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 545 et seq.

54 Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 6, 8, 3; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 4, 7.

55 Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, i. 10, 11; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, ii. 5, 2, 20. 56 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, i. 3, 1, 21. cares whether a wife is 'unchaste' (parali-punisā) or not is a mere mistranslation, 57 the expression parali-punisā really meaning 'removed from the male persons.' And the uncertainty asserted in some passages 58 as to origin from a Rṣi is not a sign of doubtful descent, but is due to the fact that Rṣihood was a difficult matter to ascertain. None the less woman's position was lowered by the prevalence of polygamy, and such stories as that of Ahalyā and Indra 59 are not compatible with a very high standard of morality. A similar conclusion is pointed to by references in the Yajurveda of to relations between the Ārya man and the Śūdrā woman, and by a spell given in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad to expiate relations with the wife of a Śrotriya (Brahmin theologian).

(e) Incest was recognized in the marriage of brother and sister as appears from the legend of Yama and Yamī in the Rigveda, ⁶² which clearly shows that such a marriage was not approved by the feeling of the Vedic age. There is also another hymn ⁶³ in which reference to such intercourse appears to be made. Mention is further made in the Rigveda ⁶⁴ to the wedlock of Prajāpati and his daughter, which is, however, interpreted mythologically in the Brāhmaṇas, ⁶⁵ an interpretation which may be correct. That incest, however, actually did take place is clear from the Atharvaveda; ⁶⁶ but even though the mythological interpretation of the passage were not justified, no conclusion could be drawn from the hymn as to the normal occurrence of such relations.

57 So Böhtlingk, Dictionary, s.v.; Delbrück, op. cit., 548.

68 Maitrāyanī Samhitā, i. 4, 11; Gopatha Brāhmana, cited in Ludwig, loc. cit.

59 Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology,

60 Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 4, 19, 2. 3; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiii. 30. 31. 61 vi. 4, 11. 62 x. 10. 63 x. 162, 5.

84 x. 61, 5-7.

65 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 33; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 4, 1; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 4, 46, 47; Max Muller, op. cit., 529, 530.

66 viii. 6, 7.

1. Dhava is the name of a tree (Grislea tormentosa) mentioned, together with the Plakṣa, Aśvattha, and Khādira, in the Atharvaveda.¹

¹ v. 5, 5; xx. 137, 11. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 62.

2. Dhava, 'man,' is not found before the Nizukta.1 The word clearly owes its existence merely to vidhavā, 'widow.' wrongly interpreted as vi-dhavā, 'without a husband.'

1 iii. 15. Cf. Naighantuka, ii. 3.

Dhavitra, occurring in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa1 and the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka,2 denotes a 'fan' of hide or leather for blowing the sacrificial fire.

1 xiv. 1, 3, 30; 3, 1, 21.

2 v. 4, 33.

D'am-jayya, 'descendant of Dhanam-jaya,' is the patronymic of Amśu in the Vamśa Brāhmana.1

1 Indische Studien, 4, 373. Under this patronymic he is frequently named by Latyayana Srauta Sūtra, i. 1, 25; Weber, Indian Literature, 76, 77, 82.

Dhānā, always used in the plural, and frequently referred to in the Rigveda¹ and later,² means 'grains of corn.' They were sometimes parched (bhrjj),3 and were regularly mixed with Soma.4

1 i. 16, 2; iii. 35, 3; 52, 5; vi. 29, 4,

² Av. xviii. 3, 69; 4, 32. 34; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 21. 22; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 5, 11, 2, etc.

3 Rv. iv. 24, 7.

4 Rv. iii. 43, 4; 52, 1; viii. 91, 2; Taittirīya Samhitā, iii, 1, 10, 2; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, iv. 4, 3, 9.

Cf. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 283.

Dhanya (neut.), a derivative from the preceding word,1 denotes 'grain' in general. It is found in the Rigveda² and later.3 According to the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad,4 there are ten cultivated (grāmyāṇi) kinds of grain: rice and barley (vrīhiyavāļ), sesamum and beans (tila-māṣāḥ), Panicum Miliaceum and Italicum (anu-priyangavah), maize (godhūmāh), lentils (masūrāḥ), Khalvāḥ and Dolichos uniflorus (khala-kulāḥ). The

1 Primarily as an adjective, 'con- | Kausitaki Brāhmaņa, xi. 8; Ṣaḍviṃśa Brāhmana, v. 5, etc.

4 vi. 3, 22 (Mādhyamdina=13 Kānva).

sisting of grain.'

² vi. 13, 4.

³ Av. iii. 24, 2. 4; v. 29, 7; vi. 50, 1;

horse is called 'corn-eating' (dhānyāda) in the Aitareya⁵ and Satapatha⁶ Brāhmaṇas, and men are mentioned as 'purifying corn' (dhānyā-kṛt) in the Rigveda.⁸

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<sup>5</sup> viii. 21. 

<sup>6</sup> xiii. 5, 4, 2. 

<sup>7</sup> Lit., 'preparing corn.' 

<sup>8</sup> x. 94, 13.
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Dhānva is the patronymic of Asita in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.¹ In the Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra² the form of the name is Dhānvana.

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1 xiii. 4, 3, 11; Aśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, x. 7. 2 xvi. 2, 20.
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Dhāman denotes in the Rigveda¹ and later² 'dwelling' and 'house,' or sometimes³ its inmates. The word is also⁴ found in the sense of 'ordinance,' 'law,' expressing much the same as Dharman, especially in conjunction⁵ with Rta, 'eternal order.' Hillebrandt⁶ sees in one passage⁷ the sense of Nakṣatra.

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<sup>1</sup> i. 144, 1; ii. 3, 2; iii. 55, 10; vii. 61, 4; 87, 2; x. 13, 1, etc.
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4 Rv. iv. 55, 2; vi. 21, 3; vii. 63, 3;
viii. 41, 10; x. 48, 11.
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Cf. Geldner, Rigveda, Glossar, 92,

Dhārā denotes the 'edge' of a weapon, as of an axe (svadhiti), or of a razor (kṣura). See also Asi.

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1 Rv. vi. 3, 5; 47, 10. Cf. viii. 73, 9; Taittirīya Āraņyaka, iv. 38, 1, for metaphorical applications.
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Dhiṣaṇā, according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary, denotes¹ an implement used in preparing the Soma, 'bowl' or 'vat,' and by metonymy also the Soma draught itself.² The dual, by

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1 Rv. i. 96, 1; 102, 1; 109, 3. 4; iii. 49, 1; iv. 34, 1; 36, 8; viii. 61, 9; ix. 59, 2; x. 17, 12; 30, 6; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, i. 19; vi. 26, 35, etc.
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² Av. iv. 25, 7; vii. 68, 1; xii. 1, 52; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, iv. 34; Taittirīya Āranyaka, ii. 7, 2.

³ Rv. viii. 101, 6; ix. 63, 14; x. 82, 3; Av. ii. 14, 6. Many of the examples given in the St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.. C, are doubtful.

⁵ Rv. i. 123, 9; iv. 7, 7; vii. 36, 5; x. 124, 3.

⁶ Vedische Mythologie, 1, 446.

⁷ Rv. ix. 66, 2.

² Kauśika Sūtra, 44.

³ Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iii. 3, 2.

a metaphor, ³ also expresses the 'two worlds,' heaven and earth. ⁴ Hillebrandt, ⁵ however, thinks that the word properly means earth, ⁶ in the dual heaven and earth, ⁷ in the plural the triad, earth, atmosphere, and heaven, ⁸ while in some passages ⁹ Dhiṣaṇā denotes the Vedi, the excavated ground used as an altar. This is not, however, certain, while it seems clear that the Vājasaneyi ¹⁰ and Taittirīya ¹¹ Samhitās understand the Dhiṣaṇās (dual) to be the planks over which the pressing of the Soma took place (adhiṣavaṇa-phalake). ¹² Pischel ¹³ sees in Dhiṣaṇā a goddess of wealth akin to Aditi and the earth.

3 Like Camü.

4 Rv. i. 160, r; vi. 8, 3; 50, 3; 70, 3; x. 44, 8; in the plural, 'the three worlds,' Rv. v. 69, 2. In other passages, Rv. i. 22, 10; iii. 56, 6; v. 41, 8; vi. 11, 3; x. 35, 7, the sense of 'a genius of prosperity' was assigned to Dhisanā by Roth.

5 Vedische Mythologie, 1, 175-181.

6 Rv. i. 22, 10; 96, 1; 102, 1; iii. 31, 13; 56, 6; vi. 19, 2; vii. 90, 3; viii. 15, 7; x. 30, 6; 35, 7; 96, 10.

7 See n. 3; also Rv. viii. 61, 2; nivid in Sānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, viii. 19, 4.

8 Rv. iv. 36, 8; v. 69, 2; ix. 59, 2.

9 Rv. i. 109, 3-4; iii. 2, 1; 49, 4 (or perhaps 'earth'); iv. 34, 1; v. 41, 8; vi. 11, 3; x. 17, 12.

10 vii. 26.

11 iii. 1, 10, 1.

¹² Mahīdhara on Vājasaneyi Samhitā, vii. 26; Sāyana on Taittirīya Samhitā, loc. cit.

13 Vedische Studien, 2, 82-87. Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 124; Oldenberg, Sacred Books of the East, 46, 120-122.

Dhī, 'thought,' is used several times in the Rigveda¹ to denote the 'prayer' or 'hymn of praise' of the singer. One poet speaks of himself as 'weaving' such a prayer,² while another refers to his 'ancient ancestral hymn,' which he refurbishes presumably for use.³

¹ i. 3, 5; 135, 5; 151, 6; 185, 8; ii. 3, 8 (where it is connected with Sarasvati); 40, 5, etc.

² Rv. ii. 28, 5.

³ Rv. iii. 39, 2.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 338.

Dhīti has in several passages of the Rigveda¹ practically the same sense as Dhī, 'prayer,' or 'hymn of praise.'

1 i. 110, 1; iii. 12, 7; 52, 6; v. 25, 3; 53, 11; vi. 15, 9, etc.; Nirukta, ii. 24.

Dhīra Śāta-parņeya ('descendant of Śataparņa') is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (x. 3, 3, 1) as a pupil of Mahāśāla.

Dhīvan occurs in the Atharvaveda,1 where it may either be taken with Roth,2 Bloomfield,3 and Whitney4 as an epithet of 'chariot-builders' (ratha-kārāh), meaning 'clever,' or be construed with the scholiast as denoting 'fishermen' (dhīvara). The Paippalada recension has taksanah, 'carpenters.'

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1 iii, 5, 6,
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4 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 114. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 17, 194 et seq.; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 252.

Dhunkṣā is the name of some sort of bird in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha, or 'horse sacrifice,' in the Yajurveda Samhitās.1 See also Dhūnksnā and Dhvānksa.

¹ Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 14, 12; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 31. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 93.

Dhuni is the name of a foe of Indra, normally mentioned along with Cumuri in the Rigveda. He and Cumuri seem to have been opposed to Dabhīti.2 His name is probably that of an aboriginal chief.3

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1, xxii; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology,
<sup>1</sup> ii. 15, 9; vi. 18, 8; 20, 13; vii. 19, 4.
                                           p. 162. Cf. Oldenberg, Religion des
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Dhur in the Rigveda¹ and later² denotes, according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary, that part of the yoke which is placed on the shoulders of the animals drawing the chariot or cart, whence they are called dhūr-ṣāh, 'yoke-bearing,' in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā.3 In one passage of the Rigveda4 the sense is uncertain: Roth⁵ takes it to mean the pin at either end of the axle (Akṣa) which goes through the nave of the wheel, and would thus be equivalent to Ani, and Oldenberg

² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

³ Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 114,

² Rv. x. 113, 9. Wackernagel, Altindische Grammatik, Veda, 157, 158.

¹ i. 84, 16; 100, 16; 134, 3; 164, 19; ii. 18, 7; iii. 35, 2; v. 55, 6; vii. 34, 4,

² Av. v. 17, 18; Aitareya Brāhmaņa vi. 18; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, i. 1, 2 10; 4, 4, 13, etc.; Aitareya Āranyaka i. 5, 2 (the Dhur is the end), etc.

³ iv. 33. Cf. Usra.

⁴ v. 43, 8.

⁵ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., 2. 6 Rgveda - Noten, 1, 339; Griffith, Hymns of the Rigueda, 1, 508. The aksadhurau are mentioned in the Apastamba Srauta Sūtra, xi. 6, 5; Kātyāyana Srauta Sutra, viii. 3, 22. Cf. Caland and Henry, L'Agnistoma, 81.

²⁶

seems to adopt the same view. Monier Williams7 seems to think that 'load' is meant, but this is not probable. It is possible that Dhur has the sense of 'pole,'8 and then more generally still the pole and the axle together regarded as the drawing part of the chariot: this might explain the use in the doubtful passage of the Rigveda.

pole,' a sense already found in the the pole. See also Dhursad.

 Dictionary, s.v.
 Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 246.
 Aitareya Āranyaka (n. 2). This modification of meaning seems to be due to Later, the word means the 'end of the | the fact that the yoke is at the end of

Dhūnkṣṇā is the form in the Taittirīya Samhitā1 of the name of the bird elsewhere found as Dhunkṣā. It is glossed as 'white crow' (śveta-kākī).

1 v. 5, 19, 1. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 93, gives the form as Dhunksna, perhaps in error. Cf. also Dhvānkṣa.

Dhūma-ketu, 'smoke-bannered,' is an epithet of Mṛtyu, 'death,' in the Atharvaveda.1 Zimmer 2 thinks that a comet is meant, but Whitney3 considers this extremely improbable. Lanman⁴ plausibly suggests that the smoke of the funeral pile is referred to.

1 xix. 9, 10. 2 Altindisches Leben, 358.

3 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 914. 4 Ibid.

Dhumra in the Taittiriya Samhita (i. 8, 21, 1) denotes 'camel' according to Böhtlingk's Dictionary.

Dhūr-ṣad means, according to Roth,1 'standing under the yoke' and so 'burden-bearing,' and thus metaphorically 'promoting,' in the passages of the Rigveda² where it occurs. More probable, however, is the view³ that it means 'sitting on the pole,' that is, 'charioteer,' with reference to the fact that

¹ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. ² i. 143, 7; ii. 2, 1; 34, 4 (but cf. Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1, 301). In x. 132, 7, Roth renders 'resting on the yoke.'

³ Cf. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 237 et seq.; Keith, Aitareya Āranyaka, 195.

to get near his horses the charioteer might well go forward and sit on the pole or even on the yoke.4

- ⁴ Cf. Mahābhārata, viii. 617: dhuryān dhuryagatān sūtān.
- 1. Dhṛta-rāṣṭra (' having his kingdom firmly established') is the name of a snake demon with the patronymic Airavata, 'descendant of Iravant,' in the Atharvaveda1 and the Pañcavimśa Brāhmana.2
 - 1 viii. 10, 29. | Brāhmaṇa, iv. 26, 15; Weber, Indische 2 xxv. 15, 3. Cf. Jaiminiya Upanisad | Studien, 17, 257.
- 2. Dhṛtarāṣṭra Vaicitra-vīrya ('descendant of Vicitravīrya') is mentioned in a passage of the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā,1 which is, unhappily, far from intelligible. But there is no ground for supposing that he was a Kuru-Pañcāla king; he seems rather to have lived at some distance from the Kuru-Pañcālas. There is no good reason to deny his identity² with the Dhrtarastra of the Satapatha Brahmana,3 king of Kasi, who was defeated, when he attempted to offer a horse sacrifice, by Sātrājita Śatānīka. The fact that the latter was a Bharata also points to Dhṛtarāṣtra's not having been a Kuru-Pañcāla at all. In the Kāthaka Samhitā he appears as having a dispute with Vaka Dālbhi; but even assuming that the latter was a Pañcāla, there is nothing to hint that the former was a Kuru or that this dispute is a sign of an early hostility of Kuru and Pañcāla.4 It is true that in the Epic Santanu and Vicitravīrya and Dhrtarastra himself are all connected, but this connexion seems to be due, as so often in the Epic, to a confused derangement of great figures of the past.

1 x. 6. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien,

3, 469 et seq.

2 As does Weber, Indian Literature, 90, 114, 125; Episches im vedischen Ritual. 7, 8. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., treats them as identical.

3 xiii. 5, 4, 22.

4 Keith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1908, 831 et seq. This argument is independent of the identification of the two Dhṛtarāṣiras, but is confirmed by it.

Dhṛṣṭi, found in the dual in the Taittirīya Āranyaka,1 the Satapatha Brāhmana,2 and the Sūtras,3 seems to denote 'firetongs.'

3 Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xxvi. 2,

¹ v. 9, 8. 2 xiv. 3, 1, 22.

Dhenā denotes a 'milch cow,' or in the plural, 'draughts of milk.' In two passages Roth takes the word to mean 'mare,' and in another the 'team' of Vāyu's chariot. Benfey, on the other hand, renders it 'lips' in one passage, with Sāyana and with Durga's commentary on the Nirukta. Geldner assigns to the word the senses of 'lips,' 'speech,' 'cow,' beloved,' beloved,' and 'streams.'

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1 Rv. iii. 34, 3 (Macdonell, Vedic
Mythology, p. 61); v. 62, 2. Cf. Geldner,
Vedische Studien, 3, 114.
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² Rv. iii. 1, 9; iv. 58, 6, etc.

3 i. 101, 10; v. 30, 9.

4 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

⁵ Rv. i. 2, 3.

6 Orient und Occident, 3, 130.

7 Rv. i. 101, 10.

8 vi. 17. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 249.

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9 Vedische Studien, 3, 35-43; 166; Rigveda, Glossar, 95.
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10 Rv. i. 101, 10; iii. 1, 9.

11 Rv. iv. 58, 6; i. 55, 4; 141, 1; viii. 32, 22; x. 104, 3. 10.

12 Rv. v. 62, 2, and Vāyu's cow of plenty, i, 2, 3.

13 Rv. v. 30, 9.

14 Rv. vii. 21, 3; iii. 34, 3.

Cf. Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 441, 442.

Dhenu in the Rigveda¹ and later² means 'milch cow,' which is often mentioned with special reference to the production of milk,³ and is contrasted with the 'bull' (vṛṣabha,⁴ pumāṃs,⁵ anaḍvāh).⁶ In the plural⁷ the word denotes 'draughts of milk.' The derivative, dhenukā, means merely 'female.'⁸

¹ i. 32, 9 (saha-vatsā, 'with her calf'); 134, 4; ii. 2, 2; 34, 8; vi. 135, 8, etc.

² Av. v. 17, 18; vii. 104, 1; Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 6, 2, 3; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iv. 4, 8; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xviii. 27; Satapatha Brāhmana, ii. 2, 1, 21, etc.

³ Rv. vii. 33, 22; viii. 14, 3; Av. iv. 34, 8 (kāma-dughā, 'milking desires,'

the later 'cow of plenty' of the Epic); Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xii. 8, 2, 2.

⁴ Rv. x. 5, 7. ⁵ Av. xi. 1, 34.

⁶ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xviii. 27; Satapatha Brāhmana, iii. 1, 2, 21.

⁷ Rv. iv. 22, 6; viii. 2, 6; 4, 8; ix. 61, 21; 72, 1, etc.

8 Av. iii. 23, 4; Pañcavimśa Brāhmana, xxv. 10, 23; Aśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xii. 6, etc.

Dhenu-şṭarī in the Kāṭhaka (xiii. 6) and Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā (ii. 5, 4) denotes a cow which has ceased to give milk.

Dhaivara means a 'fisherman,' as a member of a caste, in the list of victims at the Puruṣamedha, or 'human sacrifice,' in the Yajurveda.² Cf. Dhīvara.

¹ This seems to be shown by the patronymic form, 'descendant of a dhīvara.'

² Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 16; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 15, 1. Dhmātṛ (lit. 'blower') occurs twice in one passage of the Rigveda¹ in the two forms, dhmātā, nom. 'smelter,' and dhmātarī, which, according to the Padapātha, stands for dhmātarī, a locative probably meaning 'in the smelting furnace.'² Geldner,³ Bartholomae,⁴ and Oldenburg⁵ regard the latter form as a locative infinitive, 'in the smelting.' Ludwig⁶ and Neisser¹ think dhmātarī is a nom. sing. masc. used in the same sense as dhmātā. Smelting is also clearly referred to,³ and the smelter is described as using the wings of birds (parṇa śakunānām) to fan the flame.¹ That the art was widely applied is shown by the fact that reference is made to arrows with points of Ayas,¹o to kettles which were fashioned of the same metal and could be placed upon a fire,¹¹ and to Soma cups of beaten Ayas.¹²

- 1 v. 9, 5.
- ² Macdonell, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1893, 446.
 - 3 Vedische Studien, I, 146, n. I.
- 4 Indogermanische Forschungen, 1, 496,
 - 5 Sacred Books of the East, 46, 388.
- 6 Infinitiv im Veda, 9; Translation of the Rigveda, 4, 334.
 - 7 Bezzenberger's Beiträge, 20, 40.
- 8 Rv. iv. 2, 17. In the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. 1, 3, 5, Ayas is smelted from the ore (aśman), and gold from the Ayas.
 - 9 Rv. ix. 112, 2.
 - 10 Cf. Işu.
 - 11 Rv. v. 30, 15.
 - 12 Rv. ix. I, 2.
- Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 252; Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 159.

Dhrāji in the Rigveda¹ and later² denotes the 'sweep' of the wind, referring no doubt to the violent gales which often blow in India devastating the forests, and which figure in the descriptions of the Maruts, or storm gods.³

- i. 164, 44; x. 97, 13; 136, 2.
 Av. iii. 1, 5; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā,
 i. 2, 17; iv. 9, 5; Taittirīya Āraņyaka,
 i. 11, 19, etc.
- 3 Cf. Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, xxxii, xxiii et seq.; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 79.

Dhruva in the Sūtras¹ denotes the pole star, being mentioned in connexion with the marriage ritual, in which the star is pointed out to the bride as an emblem of constancy. In the

1 Aśvalāyana Grhya Sūtra, i. 7, 22; Śāṅkhāyana Grhya Sūtra, i. 17, 2et seq; Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iii. 3, 6, etc. It is to be noted that the marriage Mantras, of which we have a great

many, do not include any reference to the Dhruva; but it is not possible to say definitely whether the practice is really an old one or not. Maitrāyaṇī Upaniṣad,² a late work, the movement of the Dhruva (dhruvasya pracalanam) is mentioned, but this can hardly be interpreted as referring to an actual observed motion of the nominal pole star,³ but rather to an extraordinary event, such as a destruction of the world, as Cowell understood the expression.⁴ Jacobi⁵ sees in the motion of the Dhruva the possibility of fixing a date, on the ground that the only star which could have been deemed a pole star, as 'immovable,' was one (a Draconis) of the third millenium B.C. But this attempt to extract chronology from the name of the star is of very doubtful validity.⁶

² See Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 15, 289; Weber, Indische Studien, 2, 396.

3 As understood by Weber, Indian Literature, 98, n. 103; Bühler, Indian Antiquary, 23, 245, n. 21; Jacobi, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 49, 228, n. 2.

4 In his edition of the Upanisad, p. 244.

⁵ Indian Antiquary, 23, 157; Zeitschrift, loc. cit., 50, 69 et seq.; Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1909, 721 et seq.; 1910, 461 et seq.

⁶ Whitney, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 16, xc; Keith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1909, 1102; 1910, 465 et seq.

Dhruvā, 'fixed,' as an epithet of Diś, 'cardinal point,' denotes the ground under one's feet.

1 Av. iii. 27. 5; xii. 3, 59; xv. 6, 1; deśa); Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iii. 9, Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 14 (cf. Madhya-

Dhvaja occurs twice in the Rigveda¹ in the sense of 'banner' used in battle. It is characteristic of Vedic fighting that in both passages reference is made to arrows being discharged and falling on the banners.

1 vii. 85, 2; x. 103, 11. In Epic warfare banners are of vast importance —e.g., Rāmāyaṇa, ii. 67, 26; they were attached to a pole on the chariot,

Mahābhārata, vii. 3332, etc. The army was called *dhvajinī*, 'bannered host,' *ibid.*, i. 2875, etc.

Dhvanya is apparently the name of a patron, son of Laksmana, in a hymn of the Rigveda.¹

¹ v. 33, 10. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 155.

Dhvasan Dvaita-vana ('descendant of Dvitavana') is the name in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ of the king of the Matsyas who celebrated an Aśvamedha, or 'horse sacrifice,' near the Sarasvatī.

1 xiii. 5, 4, 9. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 211; Episches im vedischen Ritual, 6.

Dhvasanti is in one passage of the Rigveda¹ mentioned together with Puruṣanti as having been aided by the Aśvins. There can be no doubt that this is the longer form of the name Dhvasra, which is found with Puruṣanti both in the Rigveda² and in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.³

- 1 i. 112, 23.
- 2 ix. 58, 3 = Sv. ii. 409.
- 3 xiii. 7, 12 (where the dual of Dhyasra appears as a feminine Dhyasre). and Puruşanti are names of women.

Cf. Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 62, 63; Bensey, Sāmaveda, 105, 126, who is inclined to think that Dhvasanti and Puruṣanti are names of women.

Dhvasra is named with Puruṣanti in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa¹ as giving gifts to Taranta and Purumīḍha. These two, being kings, could not² properly accept gifts which Brāhmaṇas alone could accept, but by becoming authors of a verse of the Rigveda³ they qualified themselves to accept them. The verse mentions the names in the dual as Dhvasrayoḥ Puruṣantyoḥ, 'from the two, Dhvasra and Puruṣanti.'⁴ In the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa⁵ the names occur in the dual as Dhvasre Puruṣantī, a reading which is confirmed by the Nidāna Sūtra.⁶ The former is necessarily a feminine form, though Sāyaṇa, in his comment on the passage, explains it as really an irregular masculine. According to Roth,' the feminine is a corruption based on the dual form in the verse of the Rigveda mentioned above; but the names may be those of women, 8 as Benfey 9

¹ xiii. 7, 12. *Cf.* Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 139; Sāṭyāyanaka, *apud* Sāyaṇa, on Rv. ix. 58, 3.

² Mānava Dharma Śāstra, x. 75-77.

³ ix. 58, 3.

⁴ Both words are in the dual, as if they were members of a Dvandva compound. Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, 261.

⁵ Loc. cit.

⁶ ix. 9.

⁷ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. dhvasra.

⁸ The first would in that case be Dhyasrā.

⁹ Sāmaveda, 105, 126, under Dhvasanti and Puruṣanti.

inclines to believe. Weber 10 suggests that the two were demons, but this is, as Sieg 11 shows, quite unnecessary. Dhvasra is no doubt identical with **Dhvasanti**.

10 Episches im vedischen Ritual, 27, n. 1.

11 Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 62, 63. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 139; Oertel, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 18, 39; Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 360, points out that the sense of the Rigveda passage is quite uncertain, and that the two, Taranta and Purumīļha, as they appear in Rv. v. 61, are rather donors than receivers (see, however, verse 9, Purumīļhāya viprāya). See also Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 232; Rgveda-Noten, 1, 354.

Dhvānkṣa, 'crow,' is mentioned twice in the Atharvaveda,¹ and in the Sūtras.² Possibly the same bird is meant by the words Dhunkṣā and Dhūnkṣṇā.

1 xi. 9, 9; xii. 4, 8. 2 Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra xxv. 6, 9. Cf. Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 88.

Dhvānta is the name of some wind in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās¹ and later.²

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 7, 7, 2; | ² Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 7, 16, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxxix. 7. | Taittirīya Āranyaka, iv. 24, 1; 25, 1.

N.

Nakula, 'ichneumon,' is mentioned in the Atharvaveda¹ as being able to cut a snake in two and then join it up again. Its knowledge² of a remedy against snake poison is also mentioned. The animal figures in the list of sacrificial victims at the Aśvamedha, or 'horse sacrifice,' in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās.³

In the Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 3, 18, 1; Rgveda Prātisākhya, xvii. 9, nakula denotes a colour—no doubt that of the ichneumon.

¹ vi. 139, 5.

² Av. viii. 7, 23.

³ Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 12, 1; 21, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 26.

^{2;} Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 7.

Nakta, 'night,' is found frequently in the Rigveda, and sometimes later, usually in the adverbial form naktam, 'by night.'

¹ i. 13, 7; 73, 7; 96, 5; vii. 2, 6; x. 70, 6; adverbially, i. 24, 10; 90, 7; adverbially, Av. vi. 128, 4; Satapatha v. 76, 3; vii. 15, 15; 104, 17; viii. 96, 1. Brāhmaņa, ii. 1, 4, 2; xiii. 1, 5, 5, etc.

Nakṣatra is a word of obscure origin and derivation. The Indian interpreters already show a great divergence of opinion as to its primary meaning. The Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ resolves it into na-kṣatra ('no power'), explaining it by a legend. The Nirukta² refers it to the root nakṣ, 'obtain,' following the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa.³ Aufrecht⁴ and Weber⁵ derived it from nakta-tra, 'guardian of night,' and more recently⁶ the derivation from nak-kṣatra, 'having rule over night,' seems to be gaining acceptance. The generic meaning of the word therefore seems to be 'star.'

The Nakṣatras as Stars in the Rigveda and Later.—The sense of 'star' appears to be adequate for all or nearly all the passages in which Nakṣatra occurs in the Rigveda. The same sense occurs in the later Samhitās also: the sun and the Nakṣatras are mentioned together, or the sun, the moon, and the Nakṣatras, or the moon and the Nakṣatras, or the Makṣatras alone; 11

- 1 ii. 1, 2, 18. 19. Cf. a citation in Nirukta, iii. 20.
- ² Loc. cit., and cf. St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
 - 3 i. 5, 2, 5.
- 4 Kuhn's Zeitschrift, 8, 71, 72. So Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, 288, n. 2.
 - ⁵ Naxatra, 2, 268.
- 6 Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, p. 74, line 8.
- 7 See i. 50, 2; vii. 86, 1; x. 68, 11; 111, 7; used of the sun itself, vi. 67, 6 (as masculine); vii. 81, 2; x. 88, 13. The sun is allied with them, iii. 54, 19. Nakṣatra-śavas, 'equalling the multitude of the stars,' is used as an epithet in x. 21, 10. Even in x. 85, 2, where Soma, on the lap of the Nakṣatras, is

- mentioned, 'stars' would do; but, as this hymn refers to two of the later Nakṣatras, 'lunar mansions' may well be meant.
- 8 Av. vi. 10, 3; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiii. 43; Pañcavimśa Brāhmaņa, x. 1, 1; Taittirīya Āraņyaka, iv. 10, 12.
- 9 Av. vi. 128, 3; xv. 6, 2; Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 8, 13, 3; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxii. 29, etc.
- 10 Av. v. 24, 10; vi. 86, 2; Taittirīya Samhitā, iii. 4, 5, 1; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xxxv. 15; xxxvii. 12; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 21; xxxix. 2, etc.
- 11 Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 2, 2, 2; ii 6, 2, 6, etc; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 21 etc.; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, Aśvamedha, v. 5, and very often elsewhere.

but there is no necessity to attribute to the word the sense of

'lunar mansion' in these passages.

On the other hand, the names of at least three of the Nakṣatras in the later sense occur in the Rigveda. Tiṣya,12 however, does not seem to be mentioned as a lunar mansion. With Aghās (plur.) and Arjunī (dual) 13 the case is different: it seems probable that they are the later lunar mansions called Maghās (plur.) and Phalgunī (dual). The names appear to have been deliberately changed in the Rigveda, and it must be remembered that the hymn in which they occur, the wedding hymn of Sūryā, has no claim to great age.14 Ludwig 15 and Zimmer 16 have seen other references to the Naksatras as 27 in the Rigveda, 17 but these seem most improbable. Nor do the adjectives revatī ('rich') and punarvasū ('bringing wealth again') in another hymn 18 appear to refer to the Naksatras.

The Naksatras as Lunar Mansions .- In several passages of the later Samhitas the connexion of the moon and the Naksatras is conceived of as a marriage union. Thus in the Kāthaka 19 and Taittirīya Samhitās²⁰ it is expressly stated that Soma was wedded to the mansions, but dwelt only with Rohini; the others being angry, he had ultimately to undertake to live with them all equally. Weber 21 hence deduced that the Naksatras were regarded as of equal extent, but this is to press the texts unduly, except in the sense of approximate equality. The number of the mansions is not stated as 27 in the story told in the two Samhitās: the Taittīriya has 33, and the Kāthaka no

¹² Rv. v. 59, 13; x. 64, 8; Weber, 2, 290.

¹³ x. 85, 13; Weber, 364-367, and see references under Aghā and Arjunī.

¹⁴ Cf. Arnold, Vedic Metre, 322. 15 Translation of the Rigveda, 3,

¹⁸⁴ et seq. 16 Altindisches Leben, 354. Cf. Tilak,

Orion, 158. 17 i. 162, 18 (the 34 ribs of the horse = moon, sun, 5 planets, 27 Naksatras);

x. 55, 3 (34 lights).

¹⁸ x. 19, 1.

¹⁹ xi. 3 (Indische Studien, 3, 467).

²⁰ ii. 3, 5, 1-3. Cf. also iii. 4, 7, 1; Kāthaka Samhitā, xviii. 14; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xviii. 40; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, ix. 4, 1, 9; Şadvimsa Brāhmaņa, iii, 12. The dwelling of the moon in a Naksatra is mentioned, Satapatha Brāhmana, x. 5, 4, 17; Nirukta, v. 21; a Mantra in Kausika Sūtra, 135; Taittirīya Āraņyaka, i. 11, 6; v. 12,

²¹ Op. cit., 277. Cf. the later system of the Siddhantas, Whitney, Oriental and Linguistic Studies, 2, 372, and see Tilak, Orion, 33 et seq.

number; but 27 appears as their number in the list which is found in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā ²² and elsewhere. ²³ The number 28 is much less well attested: in one passage of the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa ²⁴ Abhijit is practically marked as a new comer, though in a later book, ²⁵ in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, ²⁶ and in the Atharvaveda list, ²⁷ it has found acceptance. It is perfectly possible that 28 is the earlier number, and that Abhijit dropped out because it was faint, or too far north, or because 27 was a more mystic (3×3×3) number: it is significant that the Chinese Sieou and the Arabic Manāzil are 28 in number. ²⁸ Weber, ²⁰ however, believes that 27 is the older number in India.

The meaning of the number is easily explained when it is remembered that a periodic month occupies something between 27 and 28 days, more nearly the former number. Such a month is in fact recognized in the Lāṭyāyana³⁰ and Nidāna Sūtras³¹ as consisting of 27 days, 12 months making a year of 324 days, a Nakṣatra year, or with an intercalary month, a year of 351 days. The Nidāna Sūtra³² makes an attempt to introduce the Nakṣatra reckoning into the civil or solar (sāvana) year of 360 days, for it holds that the sun spends $13\frac{1}{3}$ days in each Nakṣatra ($13\frac{1}{3} \times 27 = 360$). But the month of 27 or 28 days plays no part in the chronological calculations of the Veda.³³

The Names of the Nakṣatras.—In addition to the two mentioned in the Rigveda, the earlier Atharvaveda³⁴ gives the

²² iv. 4, 10, I-3.

²³ Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxxix. 13, but Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, ii. 13, 20, has 28; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 5, 1, 1-5, in lists of Nakṣatras. See also Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, ix. 7; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, x. 5, 4, 5; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xxiii. 23; Káuṣītaki Brāhmaṇa, v. 1; Sāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka, ii. 16; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vii. 1, 2, 2; Jyotiṣa, 18. 20 (verse 34 has 28, but it is interpolated); Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiv. 78, etc.

²⁴ i. 5, 2, 3. Cf. Weber, 1, 360, n. 25 iii. 1, 2, 6.

²⁶ ii. 13, 20.

²⁷ xix. 7, 1; 8, 1 = Nakşatrakalpa,
10. 26. So in Śāńkhāyana Grhya
Sūtra, i. 26.

²⁸ Whitney, op. cit., 409-411; Journal of the American Oriental Society, 8, 390.

²⁹ Op. cit., 2, 280; Indische Studien, 9, 446; 10, 223, 224, 226, 227.

³⁰ iv. 8, 1 et seq.

³¹ v. 11. 12. See Weber, 2, 281-288.

³² Thibaut, Astronomie, Astrologie und Mathematik, 7.

³³ See Māsa.

³⁴ I.c., books i-xvi.

names of Jyeṣṭhaghnī³⁵ (the later Jyeṣṭhā) and Vicṛtau,³⁶ which are mentioned as in close connexion, and of Revatīs (plural) and Kṛttikās.³⁷ With reference to possible times for the ceremony of the Agnyādhāna, or 'laying of the sacred fires,' the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā,³⁶ the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā,³⁶ and the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa ⁴⁰ mention the Nakṣatras called Kṛttikās, Rohiṇī, Phalgunyas, Hasta; the latter Brāhmaṇa adds Punarvasū, and in an additional remark ⁴¹ excludes Pūrve Phalgunī in favour of Uttare Phalgunī. The Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa ⁴² adds Mṛgaśīrṣa and Citrā as possibilities. On the other hand, Punarvasū is recommended by all authorities⁴³ as suitable for the Punarādheya, 'relaying of the sacred fires,' which takes place if the first fire has failed to effect the aim of its existence, the prosperity of the sacrificer.⁴⁴ The Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā,⁴⁵ however, allows Anurādhās also.

In the ceremony of the Agnicayana, or 'piling of the firealtar,' the bricks are assumed to be equal in number to the Nakṣatras. The bricks number 756, and they are equated to 27 Nakṣatras multiplied by 27 secondary Nakṣatras, reckoned as 720 (instead of 729), with the addition of 36 days, the length of an intercalary month. Nothing can be usefully derived from this piece of priestly nonsense.⁴⁶ But in connexion with this ceremony the Yajurveda Saṃhitās⁴⁷ enumerate the 27

 35 vi. 110, 2. This constellation, the slayer of the oldest, was apparently of evil omen. Cf. Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 5, 2, 8. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 361, equates it with Antares or Cor Scorpionis, with or without σ , τ Scorpionis (Jyaisthaghnī is a misreading in the edition of Whitney and Roth).

 36 vi. 110, 2. It is also mentioned in ii. 8, 1; iii. 7, 4; vi. 121, 3. It is identified by the commentators with Mūla, 'the root,' the two stars, λ and ν Scorpionis, which form the sting of the Scorpion's tail; Whitney, op. cit., 48.

³⁷ ix. 7, 3.

³⁸ viii. 1.

³⁹ i. 6, 9.

⁴⁰ i. I, 2, I-6.

⁴¹ i. r, 2, 8.

⁴² ii. I, 2, I.

⁴³ Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 5, 1, 4; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, i. 7, 2; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, viii. 15; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1, 2, 10; Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa, i. 3.

⁴⁴ Hillebrandt, Rituallitteratur, 109. 45 viii. 15; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, i. 7, 2.

⁴⁶ Satapatha Brāhmana, x. 5, 4, 5. See Weber, 2, 298, with whom Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 43, 383, n. 1, concurs. For a wild speculation, see Shamasastry, Gavām ayana, 122 et seq.

⁴⁷ Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 4, 10, 1-3; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, ii. 13, 20; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xxxix, 13.

Nakṣatras, and these lists 48 may be given in extenso as follows:

	Taittirīya Samhitā.		Maitrāyaņ	ī Saņ	nhita		Kāthaka Samhitā.
I.	Kṛttikās (fem. plur.)		Krttikās				Krttikās
2.	Rohini		Rohini			•••	Rohini
3.	Mṛgaśirṣa (neut.)		Invagā				Invakā
	Ārdrā		Bāhu .			•••	Bāhu
5.	Punarvasū (dual)		Punarvasu (s			•••	Punarvasu
	Tisya		m:	0 /			Tişya
7.	Āśreṣās (fem. plur.)		Āśleṣās (plur	.; Pa	da As	ilesā)	Āśleṣās (or Aśleṣās)
	Maghās (fem. plur.)		37 1-				Maghās
9.	Phalguni (fem. dual)	•••	Phalgunis (p	lur.)			Phalgunis
10.	Phalguni (fem. dual)		Phalgunis (p	lur.)			Uttarāh Phalgunis
	Hasta				•••	•••	Hastau (dual)
12.	Citrā	•••	Citrā .			•••	Citrā
13.	Svātī		Nistya (neut	.)		•••	Nistyā
14.	Viśākhe (fem. dual)	•••	Višākha (ne	ut. sii	ng.)		Viśākhā (fem. sing.)
	Anūrādhās (plur.)	•••	Anūrādhā	(Pad	la	Anu-	Anūrādhās (masc.
rādhā) plur.)							plur.)
16.	Rohiņī		Jyesthā	•••	•••	•••	Jyeșțhā
17.	Vicrtau		Mūla (neut.))		•••	Mūla
18.	Asādhās (fem. plur.)		Aṣāḍhās	•••		•••	Aṣāḍhās
19.	Aṣāḍhās (fem. plur.)		Aṣāḍhās		•••	•••	Uttarā Aṣāḍhās
20.			Abhijit	•••	•••	•••	
21.	Śronā	•••	Śroņā	•••	•••	•••	Aśvattha
	Śravisthās (plur.)		Śravisthās		•••	•••	Sravisthās
	Satabhişaj		Satabhişaj	•••	•••		Śatabhişaj
	Prosthapadās (masc. p	lur.)	Prosthapad	ās	•••	•••	Prosthapadās
	Prosthapadās (masc. p			ās	•••	•••	Uttare Prosthapadās
	Revati		Revatī	•••	•••	•••	
27.	. Aśvayujau (dual)		Aśvayujau	•••	•••	•••	
	. Apabharanis (fem. p	lur.)	Bharanis	•••	•••	•••	Apabharaņīs
	•						

The Taittirīya Brāhmaņa 49 has a list of the Nakṣatras which agrees generally with the list of the Saṃhitās. It runs as follows: Kṛttikās, Rohiṇī, Invakās, Bāhū (dual), Tiṣya, Āśleṣās, Maghās, Pūrve Phalgunī, Uttare Phalgunī, Hasta, Citrā, Niṣtyā, Viśākhe, Anūrādhās, Rohiṇī, Mūlabarhaṇī, Pūrvā Aṣāḍhās, Uttarā Aṣāḍhās, Śroṇā, Śraviṣṭhās, Śatabhiṣaj, Pūrve Proṣṭhapadās, Uttare Proṣṭhapadās, Revatī, Aśvayujau, Apabharaṇīs. In a later book, 50 however, the list grows to 28,

48 The forms and genders are given as accepted by Weber, 2, 300. The latter depend on references to the names of the Nakṣatras in other passages in some cases—e.g., Anūrādheṣu, in

Kāṭhaka, viii. 15, shows that the name is a masculine in that Saṃhitā.

⁴⁹ i. 5, I.

⁵⁰ iii. 1, 4, 1 et seq. Cf. iii. 1, 1-2.

and the full moon is inserted after number 14, and the new moon after number 28, as an attempt to bring the Nākṣatra (lunar) month into accordance with the Savana (solar) month of 30 days. The names in this second list are as in the Samhitas with the following exceptions. The seven stars of the Krttikās are named as Ambā, Dulā, Nitatnī, Abhrayantī. Meghayantī, Varṣayantī, Cupuṇīkā, names found also in the Taittirīya⁵¹ and Kāthaka Samhitās.⁵² Beside Mṛgaśīrṣa, Invakās are also mentioned.53 Then come Ārdrā, Punarvasū, Tisya, Āśresās, Maghās (beside which Anaghās, Agadās, and Arundhatīs are also mentioned), Phalgunyas (but elsewhere in the dual, Phalgunyau),54 Phalgunyas, Hasta, Citrā, Niṣṭyā, Viśākhe. Anūrādhās, Iyeşthā, Mūla, Aṣāḍhās, Aṣāḍhās, Abhijit, Śronā. Śravisthās, Śatabhisaj, Prosthapadās, Prosthapadās, Revatī, Aśyayujau, Bharanyas, but also Apabharanis. 55 Abhijit, which occurs also in an earlier part of the Brāhmaṇa,58 is perhaps interpolated. But Weber's 57 argument that Abhijit is out of place in this list because Brāhmana is here mentioned as the 28th Naksatra, loses some force from the fact (of course unknown to him) that the list in the Maitrayanī Samhita 58 contains 28 Naksatras, including Abhijit, and adds Brāhmana at the end as another.

In another passage⁵⁹ the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa divides the Nakṣatras into two sets, the Deva Nakṣatras and the Yama Nakṣatras, being 1–14 and 15–27 (with the omission of Abhijit) respectively. This division corresponds with one in the third book of the Brāhmaṇa⁶⁰ where the days of the light half of the month and those of the dark half are equated with the Nakṣatras. The Brāhmaṇa treats the former series as south, the latter as north; but this has no relation to facts, and can only be regarded as a ritual absurdity.

The late nineteenth book of the Atharvaveda contains a list 61 of the Nakṣatras, including Abhijit. The names here

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51 iv. 4, 5, 1. 52 xl. 4.
53 iii. 1, 4, 3. 54 iii. 1, 4, 9.
55 iii. 1, 5, 14. 58 i. 5, 2, 3.
57 Op. cit., 305, 306.
58 ii. 13, 20.
59 i. 5, 2, 7. Cf. Tilak, Orion, 41
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et seq.

⁶⁰ iii. 1, 2. Cf. Kausītaki Brāhmaņa, iv. 12, with Vināyaka's note.

⁶¹ xix. 7, 1 et seq. The number is given as 28 in xix. 7, 1 (as emended) and 8, 2. Cf. Lanman's introductory note to the former hymn in Whitney's Translation, 906, 907.

given are: Kṛttikās, Rohiṇī, Mṛgaśiras, Ārdrā, Punarvasū, Puṣya, Āśleṣās, Maghās, Pūrvā Phalgunyau (sic),62 Hasta, Citrā, Svāti (masc.),63 Viśākhe, Anurādhā,64 Jyeṣṭhā, Mūla, Pūrvā Aṣāḍhās,65 Uttarā Aṣāḍhās, Abhijit, Śravaṇa, Śraviṣṭhās, Śatabhiṣaj, Dvayā Proṣṭhapadā, Revatī, Aśvayujau, Bharaṇyas.

The Position of the Nakṣatras.—There is nothing definite in Vedic literature regarding the position of most of the Nakṣatras, but the later astronomy precisely locates all of them, and its statements agree on the whole satisfactorily with what is said in the earlier texts, though Weber⁶⁰ was inclined to doubt this. The determinations adopted below are due to Whitney⁶⁷ in his notes on the Sūrya Siddhānta.

- I. Kṛttikās are unquestionably η Tauri, etc., the Pleiades. The names of the seven stars forming this constellation, and given above from Yajurveda texts, 68 include three—abhrayantī, 'forming clouds'; meghayantī, 'making cloudy'; varṣayantī, 'causing rain'—which clearly refer to the rainy Pleiades. The word $krtik\bar{a}$ possibly means 'web,' from the root krt, 'spin.'
- 2. Rohiṇī, 'ruddy,' is the name of the conspicuously reddish star, α Tauri or Aldebaran, and denotes the group of the Hyades, α θ γ δ ϵ Tauri. Its identification seems absolutely assured by the legend of Prajāpati in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa. He is there represented as pursuing his daughter with incestuous intention, and as having been shot with an arrow (Iṣu Trikāṇṇā, 'the belt of Orion') by the 'huntsman' (Mṛgavyādha, 'Sirius'). Prajāpati is clearly Orion (Mṛgasiras being the name of the little group of stars in Orion's head).
 - 3. Mṛgaśīrṣa or Mṛgaśiras, also called Invakā or Invagā,

62 The reading Pūrvā Phalgunyau must be wrong; perhaps Dvaye (cf. verse 5) or Pūrve should be read. See Lanman in Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 908. The Uttare Phalgunyau are omitted.

63 Svātī should, no doubt, be read; but for the Svāti (sic) of all the manuscripts (Samhitā and Pada), cf. the navasrahti of the Aitareya Āraņyaka, ii. 3, 6, with Keith's note.

64 See Lanman in Whitney, 908.

65 Lanman, ibid., 909, reads Pūrvā

Aṣāḍhā and Uttarā Aṣāḍhā; Whitney reads Pūrvā and Uttarā Aṣāḍhās. The manuscripts have Pūrvā and Uttare, which cannot stand.

66 Op. cit., 2, 367 et seq.

67 Oriental and Linguistic Essays, 2, 350 et seq.

68 Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 4, 5, 1; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xl. 4; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 1, 4, 1. 69 iii. 33. *Cf.* Satapatha Brāhmaṇa,

69 iii. 33. Cf. Satapatha Brāhmaņa, ii. 1, 2, 8; Tilak, Orion, 98 et seq.

seems to be the faint stars λ , $\dot{\phi}$, $\dot{\phi}$, $\dot{\phi}$ Orionis. They are called Andhakā, 'blind,' in the Śāntikalpa of the Atharvaveda, probably because of their dimness.70

4. Ārdrā, 'moist,' is the name of the brilliant star, a Orionis. But the names by which it is styled, in the plural as Ārdrās in the Śānkhāyana Grhya Sūtra 71 and the Nakṣatrakalpa,72 and in the dual as Bāhū, in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa,73 point to a constellation of two or more stars, and it may be noted 74 that the corresponding Chinese Sieou includes the seven brilliant stars composing the shoulders, the belt, and the knees of Orion.

5. Punarvasū, 'the two that give wealth again,' denotes the two stars, a and β Geminorum, on the heads of Castor and Pollux. The name is no doubt connected with the beneficent character of the Asvins, who correspond to the Dioscuri.75

6. Tişya or Puşya includes the somewhat faint group in the body of the Crab, γ , δ , and θ Cancri. The singular is rather curious, as primarily one star would seem to have been meant,

and none of the group is at all prominent.76

7. Āśreṣās or Āśleṣās, which in some texts⁷⁷ is certainly to be read Aśresās or Aślesas, denotes δ , ϵ , η , ρ , σ , and perhaps also ζ, Hydræ. The word means 'embracer,' a name which admirably fits the constellation.

8. Maghās, the 'bounties,' are the Sickle, or α , η , γ , ζ , μ , ϵ Leonis. The variants Anaghā, the 'sinless one,' etc., clearly

refer to the auspicious influence of the constellation.

g, 10. Phalgunī, Phalgunyau, Phalgū,78 Phalgunīs, Phalgunyas, is really a double constellation, divided into Pūrve, 'former,' and Uttare, 'latter.' The former is δ and θ Leonis, the latter β and 93 Leonis. According to Weber, the word denotes, like Arjuni, the variant of the Rigveda,79 a 'brightcoloured' constellation.

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70 Whitney, op. cit., 401. Cf. Tilak,
102 et seq.
 71 i. 26.
 72 10.
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⁷³ i. 5, I. 74 Whitney, op. cit., 352, 401, n. 1.

⁷⁵ Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 212; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 53.

⁷⁶ Whitney, op. cit., 403, n. 1

⁷⁷ Aśreṣās, Śānkhāyana Grhya Sūtra, i. 26; Śāntikalpa; Naksatrakalpa; Aślesās, Śāntikalpa, 2; Naksatrakalpa,

⁷⁸ Kauşītaki Brāhmaņa, v. 1.

⁷⁹ x. 85, 13.

- 11. Hasta, 'hand,' is made up of the five conspicuous stars $(\delta, \gamma, \epsilon, \alpha, \beta)$ in Corvus, a number which the word itself suggests. According to Geldner, so the 'five bulls' of the Rigveda are this constellation.
- 12. Citrā, 'bright,' is the beautiful star, a Virginis. It is mentioned in a legend of Indra in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, 81 and in that of the 'two divine dogs' (divyau śvānau) in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa. 82
- 13. Svātī or Niṣṭyā is later clearly the brilliant star Arcturus or a Bootis, its place in the north being assured by the notice in the Śāntikalpa,83 where it is said to be 'ever traversing the northern way, "(nityam uttara-mārgagam). The Taittirīya Brāhmana,84 however, constructs an asterismal Prajāpati, giving him Citrā (a Virginis) for head, Hasta (Corvus) for hand, the Viśākhe (a and B Libræ) for thighs, and the Anurādhās (β , δ , and π Scorpionis) for standing place, with Nistyā for heart. But Arcturus, being 30° out, spoils this figure, while, on the other hand, the Arabic and Chinese systems have respectively, instead of Arcturus, ι , κ , and λ Virginis and κ Virginis, which would well fit into the Prajāpati figure. But in spite of the force of this argument of Weber's,85 Whitney 86 is not certain that Nistya here must mean a star in Virgo, pointing out that the name Nistya, 'outcast,' suggests the separation of this Naksatra from the others in question.
- 14. Viśākhe is the couple of stars a and β Libræ. This mansion is later called Rādhā according to the Amarakośa, and it is curious that in the Atharvaveda⁸⁷ the expression $r\bar{a}dho$ Viśākhe, 'the Viśākhe are prosperity,' should occur. But probably Rādhā is merely an invention due to the name of the next Nakṣatra, Anurādhā, wrongly conceived as meaning 'that which is after or follows Rādhā.'88
- 15. Anūrādhās or Anurādhā, 'propitious,' is β , δ , and π (perhaps also ρ) Scorpionis.

⁸⁰ Vedische Studien, 3, .77; Rv. i. 105, 10. Cf. below, p. 427, n. 156.

^{10.} Cf. below, p. 427, ii. 150. 81 Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 2, 4-6.

⁸² ii. 1, 2, 13-17. 83 3.

⁸⁴ i. 5, 2. Cf. Tilak, Orion, 204.

⁸⁵ Op. cit., 2, 307, 308.

⁸⁶ Op. cit., 409.

⁸⁷ xix. 7.

⁸⁸ Lanman in Whitney's Translation of the Atharvaveda, 908. Cf. Thibaut, Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, 63, 156.

16. Rohiņī, 'ruddy'; Jyeṣṭhaghnī, 'slaying the eldest'; or Jyesthā, 'eldest,' is the name of the constellation σ , α , and τ Scorpionis, of which the central star, α , is the brilliant reddish Antares (or Cor Scorpionis).

17. Vicrtau, 'the two releasers'; Mūla, 'root'; or Mūlabarhaṇī, 'uprooting,' denote primarily λ and ν at the extremity of the tail of the Scorpion, but including also the nine or

eleven stars from ϵ to ν .

18, 19. Aṣādhās ('unconquered'), distinguished as Pūrvās, 'former,' and Uttaras, 'latter,' are really two constellations, of which the former is composed of γ , δ , ϵ , and η Sagittarii, or of δ and ϵ only, and the latter of θ , σ , τ , and ζ Sagittarii, or of two, σ and ζ , only. It is probable that originally only four stars forming a square were meant as included in the whole constellation 89—viz., σ and ζ , with δ and ϵ .

- 20. Abhijit is the brilliant star a Lyræ with its two companions ε and ζ. Its location in 60° north latitude is completely discordant with the position of the corresponding Arabian and Chinese asterisms. This fact is considered by Oldenberg 90 to support the view that it was a later addition to the system; its occurrence, however, as early as the Maitrāyaņī Samhitā,91 which he does not note, somewhat invalidates 92 that view. the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa 93 Abhijit is said to be 'over Aṣāḍhās, under Śronā,' which Weber94 held to refer to its position in space, inferring thence that its Vedic position corresponded to that of the Arab Manazil and the Chinese Sieou-viz., a, B Capricorni. But Whitney 95 argues effectively that the words 'over' and 'under' really refer to the place of Abhijit in the list, 'after' Aṣāḍhās and 'before' Śronā.
- 21. Śronā, 'lame,' or Śravana, 'ear,' denotes the bright star a Aquilæ with β below and γ above it. Weber 98 very need-

89 Cf. Thibaut, Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, 63, 156.

⁹¹ ii. 13, 20.

Taittirīya Samhitā and in the Kāthaka Samhitā lists.

93 i. 5, 2, 3.

94 Op. cit., I, 320, 321; 2, 307; Indische Studien, 10, 224 et seq.

95 Journal of the American Oriental Society, 8, 393.

96 Op. cit., 2, 382; but see Whitney, 404.

⁹⁰ Nachrichten der königl. Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften zu Göttingen, 1909. 551, 552.

⁹² It is at the same time to be noted that Abhijit is wanting both in the

lessly thinks that the name Śravaṇa suggested two ears and the head between. It is quite out of correspondence with the Manāzil and the Sieou, and is clearly an Indian invention. 97

22. Śraviṣṭhās, 'most famous,' or later Dhaniṣṭhās,⁹⁰ 'most wealthy,' is the diamond-shaped group, α , β , δ , and γ , in the Dolphin, perhaps also ζ in the same constellation. Like the preceding Nakṣatra, it is out of harmony with the Manāzil and Sieou.

23. Śatabhisaj or Śatabhisa, 99 'having a hundred physicians,' seems to be λ Aquarii with the others around it vaguely conceived as numbering a hundred.

24, 25. Proṣṭha-padās (fem. plur.), 'feet of a stool,' or later Bhadra-padās, '100 'auspicious feet,' a double asterism forming a square, the former ($p\bar{u}rva$) consisting of a and β Pegasi, the latter (uttara) of γ Pegasi and α Andromedæ.

26. Revatī, 'wealthy,' denotes a large number of stars (later 32), of which ζ Piscium, close upon the ecliptic where it was crossed by the equator of about 570 A.D., is given as the southernmost.

27. Aśva-yujau, 'the two horse-harnessers,' denotes the stars β and ζ Arietis. Aśvinyau 101 and Aśvinī 102 are later names.

28. Apabharaṇīs, Bharaṇīs, or Bharaṇyas, 'the bearers,' is the name of the small triangle in the northern part of the Ram known as Musca or 35, 39, and 41 Arietis.

The Nakṣatras and the Months.—In the Brāhmaṇas the Nakṣatra names are regularly used to denote dates. This is done in two ways. The name, if not already a feminine, may be turned into a feminine and compounded with pārṇa-māsa, 'the full moon,' as in Tiṣyā-pūrṇamāsa, 'the full moon in the Nalṣatra Tiṣya.' Much more often, however, it is turned into a derivative adjective, used with paurṇamāsī, 'the full

97 Oldenberg, loc. cit.

98 Śāńkhāyana Grhya Sūtra, i. 26; Śāntikalpa, 13; Dhanisthā, ibid., 5.

99 So probably in Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, ii. 13, 20, where see von Schroeder's critical note. The Śāntikalpa, 5, and Nakṣatrakalpa, 2, have Śatabhiṣā, and the latter, 1, has Śatabhiṣa (masculine). 100 Śāntikalpa, 5, etc.

101 Śānkhāyana Grhya Sūtra, i. 26; Nakṣatrakalpa, 9. 30.

102 Nakşatrakalpa, 4. 45; Śānti-

kalpa, 5. 11.

103 Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 2, 10, 1. Cf. vii. 4, 8, 1. 2; Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa, v. 9, 1.

moon (night),' or with amāvāsyā, 'the new moon (night),' as in Phālgunī paurņamāsī, 'the full-moon night in the Nakṣatra Phalguni';104 or, as is usual in the Sūtras, the Nakṣatra adjective alone is used to denote the full-moon night. The month itself is called by a name derived 105 from that of a Nakṣatra, but only Phālguna,106 Caitra,107 Vaiśākha,108 Taiṣya,109 Māgha110 occur in the Brāhmaņas, the complete list later being Phālguna, Caitra, Vaiśākha, Jyaiṣṭha, Āṣāḍha, Śrāvaṇa, Prauṣṭhapada, Aśvayuja, Kārttika, Mārgaśīrṣa, Taiṣya, Māgha. Strictly speaking, these should be lunar months, but the use of a lunar year was clearly very restricted: we have seen that as early as the Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa there was a tendency to equate lunar months with the twelve months of thirty days which made up the solar year (see Māsa).

The Naksatras and Chronology.—(1) An endeavour has been made to ascertain from the names of the months the period at which the systematic employment of those names was introduced. Sir William Jones 111 refers to this possibility, and Bentley, by the gratuitous assumption that Śrāvaṇa always marked the summer solstice, concluded that the names of the months did not date before B.C. II81. Weber 112 considered that there was a possibility of fixing a date by this means, but Whitney113 has convincingly shown that it is an impossible feat, and Thibaut 114 concurs in this view. Twelve became fixed as the number of the months because of the desire, evident in the Brāhmaṇas, somehow or other to harmonize lunar with solar time; but the selection of twelve Naksatras out of twenty-seven as connected with the night of full moon can have no chronological significance, because full moon at

104 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, ii. 6, 3, 11 et seq.; vi. 2, 2, 18; xiii. 4, 1, 4; Kausītaki Brāhmaņa, i. 3; iv. 4; v. 1. See also Caland, Über das rituelle Sutra des Baudhāyana, 36, 37, and Māsa.

105 Primarily an adjective, with māsa to be supplied - e.g., Phālguna, '(the month) connected with the Naksatra

Phalguni.'

106 Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa, v. 9, 8.

107 Kausītaki Brāhmaņa, xix. 3. 108 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xi. 1, 1, 7.

109 Kausītaki Brāhmaņa, xix. 2. 3. 110 Ibid.; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 8, 1, 4. For the later list, see Weber, Naxatra, 2, 327, 328.

111 Asiatic Researches, 2, 296.

112 Op. cit., 2, 347, 348; Indische Studien, 9, 455; 10, 230, 231.

113 Journal of the American Oriental Society, 6, 413; 8, 85 et seq.

114 Astronomie, Astrologie und Mathematik, 16.

no period occurred in those twelve only, but has at all periods occurred in every one of the twenty-seven at regularly recurrent intervals.

(2) All the lists of the Naksatras begin with Krttīkās. It is only fair to suppose that there was some special reason for this fact. Now the later list of the Naksatras begins with Aśvini, and it was unquestionably rearranged because at the time of its adoption the vernal equinox coincided with the star & Piscium on the border of Revatī and Aśvinī,115 say in the course of the sixth century A.D. Weber 116 has therefore accepted the view that the Krttikas were chosen for a similar reason, and the date at which that Naksatra coincided with the vernal equinox has been estimated at some period in the third millennium B.C.117 A very grave objection to this view is its assumption that the sun, and not the moon, was then regarded as connected with the Nakṣatras; and both Thibaut 118 and Oldenberg 110 have pronounced decidedly against the idea of connecting the equinox with the Krttikās. Jacobi 120 has contended that in the Rigveda 121 the commencement of the rains and the summer solstice mark the beginning of the new year and the end of the old, and that further the new year began with the summer solstice in Phalguni. 121 He has also referred to the distinction of the two sets of Deva and Yama Naksatras in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa 122 as supporting his view of the connexion of the sun and the Naksatras. But this view is far from satisfactory: the Rigveda passages cannot yield the sense required except by translating the word dvādaśa123 as 'the twelfth (month)' instead of 'consisting of twelve parts,' that is, 'year,' the accepted

115 Cf. Colebrooke, Essays, 2, 264; Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 234.

116 Naxatra, 2, 362 - 364; Indische Studien, 10, 234; Indian Literature, 2, n. 2, etc.

117 See Weber, loc. cit.; Bühler, Indian Antiquary, 23, 245, n. 20; Tilak, Orion, 40 ct seq.

118 Indian Antiquary, 24, 96.

119 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 631; 49, 473; 50, 451, 452; Nachrichten der königl. Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften zu Göttingen, 1909, 564; Keith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1909, 1103.

120 Festgruss an Roth, 68 ct seq. = Indian Antiquary, 23, 154 et seq.; Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 49, 218 et seq.; 50, 83; Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1910,

121 vii. 103 (the 'frog' hymn); x. 85 (the 'marriage' hymn).

122 i. 5, 2, 8.

123 Rv. vii. 103, 9.

interpretation; and the division of the Naksatras is not at all satisfactorily explained by a supposed connexion with the sun. It may further be mentioned that even if the Naksatra of Kṛttikās be deemed to have been chosen because of its coincidence with the vernal equinox, both Whitney 124 and Thibaut 125 are prepared to regard it as no more than a careless variant of the date given by the Jyotiṣa, which puts the winter solstice in Māgha.

(3) The winter solstice in Māgha is assured by a Brāhmana text, for the Kauşītaki Brāhmaņa 126 expressly places it in the new moon of Māgha (māghasyāmāvāsyāyām). It is not very important whether we take this with the commentators 127 as the new moon in the middle of a month commencing with the day after full moon in Taisa, or, which is much more likely, as the new moon beginning the month and preceding full moon in Māgha. The datum gives a certain possibility of fixing an epoch in the following way. If the end of Revatī marked the vernal equinox at one period, then the precession of the equinoxes would enable us to calculate at what point of time the vernal equinox was in a position corresponding to the winter solstice in Māgha, when the solstitial colure cut the ecliptic at the beginning of Śravisthās. This would be, on the strict theory, in the third quarter of Bharani, 63 asterisms removed from Śravisthas, and the difference between that and the beginning of Aśvini=

124 Oriental and Linguistic Essays, 2, 383.

125 Indian Antiquary, 24, 97. Cf. Keith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1910, 464, n. 4.

Weber, Naxatra, 2, 345 et seq., who pointed out its relation to the datum of the Jyotisa. The same date as that of the Jyotisa is found in a passage of the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra cited by Shamasastry, Gavām Ayana, 137 (māghe māse dhanisthābhir uttarenaiti bhānumān, ardhāšlesasya śrāvaṇasya dakṣiṇenopanivartate, 'in the month of Māgha the sun goes north with the asterism Dhaniṣṭhās, in the month of Śrāvaṇa he returns south in the middle of the asterism Aślesa'; the sense is clear,

though the text is corrupt). The passage is apparently not in Caland's manuscripts, or he would have mentioned it in his paper, Über das rituelle Sūtra des Baudhāyana, 36, 37. Its date and value are therefore not quite certain.

127 Vināyaka on Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa, loc. cit.; Ānartīya on Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiii. 19, r; Weber, Naxatra, 2, 345. The assumption of the scholiasts seems to be due to the fact that to their minds a month must end with a new moon (amānta) or with full moon (pūrṇimānta). But there is no reason to say that in Vedic times the month may not have commenced with the new moon; the Kauṣītaki passage would thus be quite satisfactorily explained.

 $1\frac{3}{4}$ asterisms = $23\frac{1}{3}$ ° (27 asterisms being = 360°). Taking the starting-point at 499 A.D., the assured period of Varāha Mihira, Jones 128 arrived at the date B.C. 1181 for the vernal equinox corresponding to the winter solstice in Magha-that is, on the basis of 1°=72 years as the precession. Pratt129 arrived at precisely the same date, taking the same rate of precession and adopting as his basis the ascertained position in the Siddhantas of the junction star 130 of Magha, a Leonis or Regulus. Davis 131 and Colebrooke 132 arrived at a different date, B.C. 1391, by taking as the basis of their calculation the junction star of Citra, which happens to be of uncertain position, varying as much as 3° in the different textbooks. But though the twelfth century has received a certain currency as the epoch of the observation in the Jyotisa, 133 it is of very doubtful value. As Whitney points out, it is impossible to say that the earlier asterisms coincided in position with the later asterisms of 131° extent each. They were not chosen as equal divisions, but as groups of stars which stood in conjunction with the moon; and the result of subsequently making them strictly equal divisions was to throw the principal stars of the later groups altogether out of their asterisms. 134 Nor can we say that the star ζ Piscium early formed the eastern boundary of Revati; it may possibly not even have been in that asterism at all, for it is far remote from the Chinese and Arabic asterisms corresponding to Revatī. Added to all this, and to the uncertainty of the starting-point-582 A.D., 560 A.D., or 491 A.D. being variants 135—is the fact that the place of the equinox is not a matter accurately determinable by mere observation, and that the Hindu astronomers of the Vedic period cannot be deemed to have been very accurate observers, since they made no precise determination of the

128 Asiatic Researches, 2, 393.

120 Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, 31. 49.

130 Cf. Whitney, Oriental and Linguistic

Essays, 2, 373.

131 Asiatic Researches, 2, 268; 5, 288. 132 Essays, 1, 109, 110. See Sir T. Colebrooke, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1, 335 et seq.; Whitney, op. cit., 2, 381, 382. 133 E.g., Lassen, Indische Alterthumskunde, 12, 606, 607, 976, and ef. Thibaut, Astronomie, Astrologie und Mathematik, 17, 18; Tilak, Orion, 38, 39.

134 Whitney, op. cit., 2, 375.

135 Cf. Whitney, op. cit., 377, 379; Weber, op. cit., 2, 363, 364, where he prefers A.D. 582.

number of days of the year, which even in the Jyotisa they do not determine more precisely than as 366 days, and even the Sūrya Siddhānta¹³⁶ does not know the precession of the equinoxes. It is therefore only fair to allow a thousand years for possible errors,¹³⁷ and the only probable conclusion to be drawn from the datum of the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa is that it was recording an observation which must have been made some centuries B.C., in itself a result quite in harmony with the probable date of the Brāhmaṇa literature, ¹³⁸ say B.C. 800-600.

(4) Another chronological argument has been derived from the fact that there is a considerable amount of evidence for Phālguna having been regarded as the beginning of the year, since the full moon in Phalgunī is often described as the 'mouth (mukham) of the year.' 139 Jacobi 140 considers that this

136 See Whitney's note on Sūrya Siddhānta, iii. 12; op. cit., 2, 369, n. 1; 374, n. 1. Cf. Tilak, Orion, 18.

137 Whitney, 384, followed by Thibaut, Indian Antiquary, 24, 98; Astronomie, Astrologic und Mathematik, 18. See also Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 236; Indian Literature, 2. n. 2; Whitney, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1, 313 ct seq.; in Colebrooke's Essays, 12, 120 et seq.; Max Müller, in his edition of the Rigveda, iv2, xxx et seq., was also inclined to regard the date as very uncertain; only in his popular works (Chips, 1, 113, etc.) did he accept 1181 B.C., or rather 1186 B.C., as recalculated by Main from Pratt's calculation. Shamasastry's desence, Gavam Ayana, 122 et seq., of the Jyotisa shows a misunderstanding

the criticisms made. See Keith, ournal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1910,

66, n. 5.

138 Cf. Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 12, 202; Keith, Aitareya Āranyaka, 20 et seq. It has been put earlier: see Thibaut, Astronomie, etc., 18; Bühler, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 55, 544, and ef. Bühler, Sacred Books of the East, 2, xl et seq.; Indian Antiquary, 23, 247; von Schroeder, Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 45 et seq. See also Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 3; Hille-

brandt, Rituallitteratur, 31, who are inclined to accept an early date, fourth or fifth century B.C., for the Apastamba Sūtras, from which a still earlier date for the Brāhmanas must be conceded. But Eggeling is more probably correct when he assigns the Apastamba Sūtras to the third century, B.C. See Sacred Books of the East, 12, xl, and it seems unwise unduly to press back the date of Vedic literature. It is noteworthy that in the Epic the solstice is still in Māgha (Mahābhārata, xiii. 168, 6. 28). Reference is, however, made (ibid., i. 71. 34) to the Naksatras commencing with Śravana, and the first month is Mārgaśīrsa (see Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 24, 21 et seq.). Cf. also Tilak, Orion, 37, 216.

139 Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 4, 8, 1. 2; Pancavimsa Brāhmaņa, v. 9, 9. Cf. Kausītaki Brāhmaņa, iv. 4; v. 1; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 1, 2, 8; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, vi. 2, 2, 18; Āsvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, v. 3. 16. According to the Taittirīya and the Kausītaki Brāhmaņas, the beginning falls at the middle

of the joint asterism.

140 Indian Antiquary, 23, 156 et seq.; Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 49, 223 et seq.; 50, 72-81. See Tilak, Orion, 53 et seq.; 198 et seq.

was due to the fact that the year was reckoned from the winter solstice, which would coincide with the month of Phalguna about B.C. 4000. Oldenberg 141 and Thibaut, 142 on the other hand, maintain that the choice of Phalguna as the 'mouth' of the year was due to its being the first month of spring. This view is favoured by the fact that there is distinct evidence 143 of the correspondence of Phalguna and the beginning of spring: as we have seen above in the Kausītaki Brāhmana, the new moon in Magha is placed at the winter solstice. 144 which puts the full moon of Phalguni at a month and a half after the winter solstice, or in the first week of February, a date not in itself improbable, for about B.C. 800, and corresponding with the February 7 of the veris initium in the Roman Calendar. This fact accords with the only natural division of the year into three periods of four months, as the rainy season lasts from June 7-10 to October 7-10, and it is certain that the second set of four months dates from the beginning of the rains (see Caturmasya). Tilak, 145 on the other hand, holds that the winter solstice coincided with Maghī full moon at the time of the Taittirīya Samhitā (B.C. 2350), and had coincided with Phalgunī and Caitri in early periods-viz., B.C. 4000-2500, and B.C. 6000-4000.

(5) The passages of the Taittirīya Samhitā 146 and the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, 147 which treat the full moon in Phālguna as the beginning of the year, give as an alternative the full moon in Caitra. Probably the latter month was chosen so as to secure that the initial day should fall well within the season of spring, 148 and was not, as Jacobi believes, a relic of a period

141 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 630 et seq.; 49,475,476; 50,453-457. Cf. Whitney, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 16, lxxxvii.

142 Indian Antiquary, 24, 86 et seq. 143 See Weber, Naxutra, 2, 329 et seq., and ef. Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 3, 36; Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa, v. 1; a Śruti passage in the commentary on Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, i. 2, 13; Baudhāyana Dharma Sūtra, ii. 2, 4, 23, and especially Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4,

I, 2. 4. So the Phälguna full moon is called the 'month of the seasons' (rtūnām mukham) in Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, viii. I; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, i. 6, 9.

¹⁴⁴ xix. 2. 3.

¹⁴⁵ Orion, 53 et seq .; 198 et seq.

¹⁴⁶ vii. 4, 8, 1.

¹⁴⁷ v. 9. See Weber, op. cit., 2, 341-344; Thibaut, Indian Antiquary, 24, 85 et seq., for a full discussion of the points raised by Tilak, Orion, 43 et seq.

¹⁴⁸ Thibaut, Indian Antiquary, 24, 93. On the other side, Tilak, 198 et seq.

when the winter solstice corresponded with Caitra. Another alternative is the Ekāṣṭakā, interpreted by the commentators as the eighth day after the full moon in Maghās, a time which might, as being the last quarter of the waning half of the old year, well be considered as representing the end of the year. A fourth alternative is the fourth day before full moon; the full moon meant must be that of Caitra, as Ālekhana quoted by Āpastamba held, not of Māgha, as Āśmarathya, Laugākṣi and the Mīmāṃsists believed, and as Tilak believes. 149

(6) Others, again, according to the Grhya ritual, began the year with the month Mārgaśīrṣa, as is shown by its other name Āgrahāyaṇa 150 ('belonging to the commencement of the year'). Jacobi and Tilak 151 think that this one denoted the autumn equinox in Mṛgaśiras, corresponding to the winter solstice in Phalgunī. But, as Thibaut 152 shows clearly, it was selected as the beginning of a year that was taken to commence with autumn, just as some took the spring to commence with Caitra

instead of Phālguna.¹⁵³

(7) Jacobi has also argued, with the support of Bühler, ¹⁵⁴ from the terms given for the beginning of Vedic study in the Gṛḥya Sūtras, on the principle that study commenced with the rains (as in the Buddhist vassā) which mark the summer solstice. He concludes that if Bhādrapada appears as the date of commencing study in some texts, it was fixed thus because at one time Proṣṭhapadās (the early name of Bhadrapadās) coincided with the summer solstice, this having been the case when the winter solstice was in Phālguna. But Whitney has pointed out that this argument is utterly illegitimate; we cannot say that there was any necessary connexion between the rains and learning—a month like Śrāvaṇa might be preferred

Weber, 2, 332-334.

Society, 16, lxxxiv et seq.

¹⁴⁹ Thibaut, op. cit., 94; Tilak, 51 et seq. Cf. also Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiii. 1. 8-10; Weber, 2, 343, n. 2, 344.

¹⁵⁰ Thibaut, op. cit., 94, 95. Cf.

¹⁵¹ Tilak's view is given in Orion, 62 et seq. It is based mainly on Amara's (i. 2, 23) āgra-hāyaṇī as a synonym of Mṛgaśiras, and on certain myths (chaps.

v.-vii.); he equates (221 et seq.) Āgra-yaṇa and Orion (!).

¹⁵² Op. cit., 94, 95.

¹⁵³ A corresponding Karttika year is not early, Thibaut, op. cit., 96. Cf. Weber, op. cit., 2, 334.

¹⁵⁴ Indian Antiquary, 23, 242 et seq. 155 Journal of the American Oriental

because of its connexion with the word Śravaṇa, 'ear'—and in view of the precession of the equinoxes, we must assume that Bhādrapada was kept because of its traditional coincidence with the beginning of the rains after it had ceased actually so to coincide. 156

The Origin of the Nakṣatras.—As we have seen, there is no evidence showing the process by which the Nakṣatras may

156 Mention should here be made of the following points: (1) Jacobi's argument from the word Dhruva, the name of the star pointed out to the bride in the marriage ritual. The word dces not occur in the literature anterior to the Grhva Sūtras, and it must remain an undecided question whether the practice was or was not old. Jacobi urges that Dhruva means 'fixed,' and that it must originally have referred to a real fixed pole star, and he thinks that such a star could only be found in the third millennium B.C. Whitney and Oldenberg definitely reject this view on the ground that too much must not be made out of a piece of folk-lore, and that the marriage ritual requirements would be satisfied by any star of some magnitude which was approximately polar. This conclusion seems convincing. Cf. Keith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1909, 1102; 1910, 465; contra, Jacobi, ibid., 1909. 726 et seq.; 1910, 464. (2) The Satapatha Brāhmaņa, ii. 1, 2, 3, asserts that the Krttikas do not move from the eastern quarter, which the others do; and stress has been laid (by Jacobi, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1910, 463, 464) upon this assertion as giving a date of the third millennium B.C. for the Satapatha observation. But this notice is quite inadequate to support any such result, and its lack of trustworthiness as a chronological guide is increased by the fact that the Baudhāvana Śrauta Sūtra, xviii 5, has a similar notice, coupled with another notice, which, according to Barth, would only be true somewhere in or after the sixth

century A.D., the equatorial point being placed between Citra and Svati, which in the early period were both very much north of the equator (see Caland, Über das rituelle Sutra des Bandhayana, 37-39). The same passage of the Satapatha Brāhmaņa, ii. 1, 2, 2, in the Mādhyamdina recension, states that the number of the Krttikas is greater than that of the stars in any of the other Naksatras, which consist of one. two, three, or four stars, or which, according to the Kanva recension (see Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, 282, n. 2), have four stars. It is not possible to put much faith in this assertion, for Hasta later has five stars, and its name (with reference to the fingers) suggests five (cf. Weber, Naxatra, 2, 368, 381), and that number is possibly referred to in the Rigveda (i. 105, 10). See Geldner, Vedische Studien, 3, 177. (3) Attempts have been made to regard the names of the Naksatras as significant of their position in the list. Thus Bentley, Historical View, 2, thought Visākhā was so called because the equinoctial colure divided the equator about 1426 B.C.; this is refuted by Tilak, Orion, 57 et seq. Jyesthaghnī has been interpreted as slaying the eldest '-i.e., as marking the new year by putting an end to the old year. Tilak, 90, suggests that Mūla was so called because its acronycal rising marked the beginning of the year when the vernal equinox was near Mṛgaśiras. More probable is Whitney's view, Sūrya Siddhanta, 194, that it was the most southern, and so, as it were, the basis of the asterisms.

have originated in India. They are mentioned only as stars in the earlier parts of the Rigveda, then the names of three of them are found in the latest parts of that Samhitā, and finally in the later Atharvaveda and in the Yajurveda Samhitās the full list appears. It may also be noted that the Vedic Indians show (see Graha) a remarkably small knowledge of the other astronomical phenomena; the discovery of a series of 27 lunar mansions by them would therefore be rather surprising. On the other hand, the nature of such an operation is not very complicated; it consists merely in selecting a star or a star group with which the moon is in conjunction. It is thus impossible a priori to deny that the Vedic Indians could have invented for themselves a lunar Zodiac. 157

But the question is complicated by the fact that there exist two similar sets of 28 stars or star groups in Arabia and in China, the Manāzil and the Sieou. The use of the Manāzil in Arabia is consistent and effective; the calendar is regulated by them, and the position of the asterisms corresponds best with the positions required for a lunar Zodiac. The Indians might therefore have borrowed the system from Arabia, but that is a mere possibility, because the evidence for the existence of the Manāzil is long posterior to that for the existence of the Nakṣatras, while again the Mazzaroth or Mazzaloth of the Old Testament 158 may really be the lunar mansions. 159 That the Arabian system is borrowed from India, as Burgess 160 held, is, on the other hand, not at all probable.

Biot, the eminent Chinese scholar, in a series of papers published by him between 1839 and 1861, 161 attempted to prove

157 Max Müller, Rigveda, 42, xliv et seq., maintains the Indian origin of the system. Thibaut, Astronomic, Astrologic und Mathematik, 14, 15, admits it to be possible, as does Whitney, Oriental and Linguistic Essays, 2, 418.

168 2 Kings xxiii. 5; Job xxxviii. 32. 169 Weber, *Naxatra*, 1, 317, 318; Whitney, op, cit., 359.

Society, 8, 309-334. This was Weber's view also, according to Whitney, 413

et seq.; but Weber himself disclaimed it (see Indische Studien, 9, 425, 426; 10, 246, 247). On the other hand, Sédillot, Matériaux pour servir à l'histoire compurée des Sciences Mathématiques par les Grees et les Orientaux (Paris, 1845-1849), favoured influence from Arabia on India.

161 Summed up in his two works. Recherches sur l'ancienne astronomie Chinoise, and Études sur l'astronomie Indienne et l'astronomie Chinoise.

the derivation of the Naksatra from the Chinese Sieou. The latter he did not regard as being in origin lunar mansions at all. He thought that they were equatorial stars used, as in modern astronomy, as a standard to which planets or other stars observed in the neighbourhood can be referred; they were, as regards twenty-four of them, selected about B.C. 2357 on account of their proximity to the equator, and of their having the same right ascension as certain circumpolar stars which had attracted the attention of Chinese observers. Four more were added in B.C. 1100 in order to mark the equinoxes and solstices of the period. He held that the list of stars commenced with Mao (= Krttikās), which was at the vernal equinox in B.C. 2357. Weber, 162 in an elaborate essay of 1860, disputed this theory, and endeavoured to show that the Chinese literary evidence for the Sieou was late, dating not even from before the third century B.C. The last point does not appear 163 to be correct, but his objections against the basis of Biot's theory were reinforced by Whitney,164 who insisted that Biot's supposition of the Sieou's not having been ultimately derived from a system of lunar mansions, was untenable. This is admitted by the latest defender of the hypothesis of borrowing from China, Léopold de Saussure, 165, but his arguments in favour of a Chinese origin for the Indian lunar mansions have been refuted by Oldenberg,166 who has also pointed out 167 that the series does not begin with Mao (= Krttikās).

There remains only the possibility that a common source for all the three sets—Nakṣatra, Manāzil, and Sieou—may be found in Babylonia. Hommel 108 has endeavoured to show that recent research has established in Babylonia the existence of a lunar zodiac of twenty-four members headed by the

¹⁶² Naxatra, 1, 284 et seq. (1860).

¹⁶³ See Chavannes, cited by Oldenberg, Nachrichten der königl. Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften zu Göttingen, 1909,

¹⁰⁴ Journal of the American Oriental Society, 8, 1 et seq.; Oriental and Linguistic Essays, 2, 385 et seq. For his controversy with Weber, see Weber,

Indische Studien, 9, 424 et seq.; 10, 213 et seq.; Whitney, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 8, 384 et seq.

¹⁶⁵ T'oung Pao, 1909, 121 et seq.; 255 et seq.

¹⁶⁶ Nachrichten, 1909, 544-572.

¹⁶⁷ Ibid., 548, n. 9.

¹⁶⁸ Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 45, 592 et seq.

Pleiades (= Kṛttikās); but Thibaut's researches 169 are not favourable to this claim. On the other hand, Weber, 170 Whitney, 171 Zimmer, 172 and Oldenberg 173 all incline to the view that in Babylonia is to be found the origin of the system, and this must for the present be regarded as the most probable view, for there are other traces of Babylonian influence in Vedic literature, such as the legend of the flood, perhaps the Ādityas, 174 and possibly the word Manā.

169 Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, 63, 144-163. Cf. Astronomic, etc., 15; Oldenberg, op. cit., 572.

170 Naxatra, 1, 316 et seq.; Indische Studien, 10, 246, and elsewhere. Weber, Naksatra, 2, 362, 400, laid great stress on the fact that the Jyotisa, 8, referred to the difference of the longest and shortest day as being six muhūrtas, which makes the longest day fourteen hours twenty-four minutes; and he compared the Babylonian day of fourteen hours twenty-five minutes, and a Chinese day of fourteen hours twentyfour minutes. But Whitney, Oriental and Linguistic Essays, 2, 417, 418, shows that no stress can be laid on this argument, since the correspondence is only approximate, and the latitudes of the Babylonian and Chinese observations are approximately the same.

171 See op. cit., 2, 418-420.

172 Altindisches Leben, 356, 357, where he is quite confident of the Semitic origin of the Naksatras.

173 Op. cit., 572.

174 For the flood, see Zimmer, op. cit., 101, 357, who is opposed to Weber's view (Indische Studien, 1, 160; Indische Streifen, 1, 11) that the story preserves an old Āryan tradition, and a reminiscence of the home of the Indians beyond the Himālaya (cf. Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 12, 190; 22, 323, n. 96; Lassen, Indische Alterthumskunde, 12, 638, and cf. Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 276, n. 3). For the Ādityas, see Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 185 et seq.; Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesell-

schaft, 50, 43 et seq. His view is not accepted by Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 44; Bloomfield, Religion of the Veda, 133. Still more coubtful is Zimmer's view (Altindisches Leben, 363, 364) of the division of day and night into thirty parts, which he sees in Rv. i. 123, 8, and which he thinks is based on the Babylonian division of the same period of time into sixtieths. Cf. also V. Smith, Indian Antiquary, 34, 230, who argues, but inconclusively, that the use of iron was introduced from Babylonia.

The facts about the Naksatras are (with the exception of the data from the Maitrāyaņī Samhitā and the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra) collected in Weber's second essay, Die vedischen Nachrichten von den Naxatra, 1861. The first essay, 1860, deals with the problem of origins. See also his discussions in Indische Studien, 9, 424 et seq.; 10, 213 et seq. Whitney's work lies partly in his scientific determination (in many places correcting Colebrooke's discoveries) of the later Naxatras in his edition and version of the Sürya Siddhanta (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 6), and partly in his discussions of the question of origin (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 8), Oriental and Linguistic Essays, 2, 341-421 (with a stellar chart), and of the question of date as against Jacobi and Tilak's Orion (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 16, lxxxii et seq.). The views of Max Müller are found in his Rigueda, 42, xxxiv et seq. The modern discussion of the dates inferable from the Naksatra was inaugurated by Jacobi (1893) in the Festgruss an Roth, 68-74 (translated in the Indian Antiquary, 23). See also his articles in the Nachrichten der königl. Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften zu Göttingen, 1894, 110 et seq.; Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 49, 218 et seq.; 50, 70 et seq.; Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1909, 721-727. Independently Tilak, in his Orion, developed similar views; but most of his special points are disposed of by Whitney in his review cited above. Oldenberg has discussed and refuted Jacobi's arguments in the Zeitschrift, 48, 629 et seq.; 49, 470 et seq.; 50, 450 et seq.; Journal of the Royal Asiatic

Society, 1909, 1090 et seq. Thibaut has also rejected Jacobi's views in an article in the Indian Antiquary, 24, 85 et seq. See also his Astronomie, Astrologie und Mathematik, 17-19. The recent literature on the origin of the Naksatras consists of articles by Thibaut, Journa of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, 63, 144 et seg.; Saussure, T'oung Pao, 1909, 121 et seq.; 255 et seq.; Oldenberg, Nachrichten der königl. Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften zu Göttingen, 1909, 544 et seq. The Naksatras in the Epic are dealt with by Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 24, 29-36. Ludwig's views are given in his Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 183 et seq.

Nakṣatra-darśa ('gazer at the lunar mansions'), an 'astrologer,' is mentioned in the list of victims at the Purusamedha, or 'human sacrifice,' in the Yajurveda.1 A notice in the Satapatha Brāhmana² indicates that that work regarded the practice of choosing a particular Naksatra under which to set up the sacrificial fires as an idle one, because it decides in favour of choosing the sun as one's Naksatra.

tirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 4, 1.

2 ii. 1, 2, 19, and cf. the Kanva text

1 Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 10; Tait- | in Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, xii, 288, n. 3.

Naksatra-vidyā, the 'science of the lunar mansions,' 'astronomy,' is mentioned with other sciences in the Chandogya Upanișad (vii. 1, 2. 4; 2, 1; 7, 1).

Nakha denotes either the 'nail' of a man, or the 'claw' of a wild beast, such as a tiger.2 The trimming (nikṛntana)3 of the nails was a regular part of the toilet of the Vedic Indian, especially on occasions of special sanctity, when it accompanied the cleansing of the teeth.4

¹ Rv. i. 162, 9; x. 163, 5; Av. ii. 33, 6, etc.

² Rv. iv. 3, 3. Cf. x. 28, 10, of the eagle's talon.

³ Chandogya Upanişad, vi. 1, 6.

⁴ Taittiriya Samhitā, ii. 5, 1, 7; Maitrayani Samhita, iii. 6, 2, etc.; Satapatha Brāhmana, ii. 1, 3, 4.

Na-ga ('not moving'), 'mountain,' is a word occurring only in a late book of the Atharvaveda (xix. 8, 1), and then in the Sūtras.

Nagara is in early Vedic literature found only in the derivative adjective, used as a proper name, Nagarin, but it appears in the sense of 'town' in the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka (i. 11, 18; 31, 4), and frequently in the later language.

Nagarin Jāna-śruteya ('descendant of Janaśruti') is mentioned as a priest in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (v. 30), and as Nagarin Jānaśruteya Kāṇḍviya in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 40, 2).

Nagna-jit, King of Gandhāra, is mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa¹ as having been consecrated by Parvata and Nārada. The same king is mentioned with his son Svarjit in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,² where a remark attributed to one of them on a ritual topic is treated with contempt.

¹ vii. 34.
² viii. 1, 4, 10. Cf. Weber, Indian | Literature, 132, 134; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 12, 515.

Nagnā. See Dharma.

Nagha-māra and Naghā-risa. See 1. Kustha.

Na-cikėtas occurs in the well-known legend of the Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa¹ (where he is a Gotama, the son of Vāja-śravasa), and in the Kaṭha Upaniṣad.² His historical reality is extremely doubtful: in the Upaniṣad he is called son of Āruṇi Auddālaki or Vājaśravasa, an impossible attribution, and one due only to a desire to give Naciketas a connexion with the famous Āruṇi.

¹ iii. 11, 8.
2 i. 1, etc. Cf. Geldner, Vedische Studien, 3, 154, n. 1; Weber, Indian

1. Nada, 'reed,' is mentioned in the Rigveda as growing in lakes, and in the Atharvaveda2 is described as vārṣika, 'produced in the rains.' Reeds were used, after being split, for making mats, a work carried out by women.3 They are frequently mentioned elsewhere.4 See also Nada.

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1 viii. 1, 33.
2 iv. 19, 1.
3 Av. vi. 138, 5.
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Kāthaka Samhitā, xxv. 7; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, i. 1, 4, 19; Taittirīya Āranyaka, vi. 7, 10. 4 Av. vi. 137, 2; xii. 2, 1. 19. 50. 54; Cf. Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 71.

2. Nada Naisadha is mentioned in the Satapatha Brāhmana,1 where he seems to be2 a human king who is compared with Yama, the god- of death, because of his conquests. Being there identified with the southern sacrificial fire, he was presumably a king of the south, just as Yama is connected with the south.

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1 ii. 2, 2, 1. 2.
  2 Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 225-227,
followed by Eggeling, Sacred Books of
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the East, 12, 338, notes 4 and 5. The printed text has Naisidha by error.

Nadvalā, a 'reed bed,' is mentioned in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā (xxx. 16) and the Taittirīya Brāhmana (iii. 4, 12, 1).

Nada is found in several passages of the Rigveda,1 but its sense is still obscure. It is identified by Pischel² with Nada, being explained by him in one passage3 as a reed boat, which is split, and over which the waters go; in another 4 as a reed whip, of which the sharp points (karna) are used to urge horses on; and in others again as figuratively designating the penis. Roth⁶ takes the sense to be 'bull' (either literally or meta-

1 i. 32, 8; 179, 4; ii. 34, 3; viii. 69, 2; x. 11, 2; 105, 4. Cf. Nirukta, v. 2.

2 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 35. 717 et seq.; Vedische Studien, 1, 183 et seq.

3 i. 32, 8. Here Caland and Henry, L'Agnistoma, 312, n., would read nalam. See also Wackernagel, Altindische Grammatik, 1, 173.

4 ii. 34, 3, followed by Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 301 (who, however, does not construe āśubhih, 'sharp,' with karnaily as Pischel does in Vedische Studien, 1, 190). He sees 'reed' also in x. 11, 2, but 'horse' in x. 105, 4.

5 i. 179, 4; viii. 69, 2.

6 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. The sense of 'bull' seems imperative in viii. 89, 2; it is admissible in i. 179, 4, where 'bull' may denote a man, and in x. 11, 2, and possibly in i. 32, 8, but 'reed' there seems far more likely. phorically) in all passages. Once at least the 'neigher' (from the root nad, 'sound') seems to be meant with reference to Indra's horse. In the phrase nadasya karnaih the sense is, perhaps, 'through the ears of the (side) horse' (that is, by their being ready to hear the word of command) of their chariot, the Maruts 'hasten on with their swift steeds' (turayanta aśubhih).

7 x. 105, 4, and in x. 11, 2. The latter passage suggests that 'river' may, after all, be the sense there.

Cf. Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 32, 178, 215.

Nadī, 'stream,' is mentioned in the Rigveda¹ and later.² Reference is made to shallows $(g\bar{a}dha)^3$ in the river's bed, to the opposite bank $(p\bar{a}ra)$,⁴ and to the bathing of horses in streams.⁵ Rivers are also mentioned in close connexion with mountains.⁶ The title Nadī-pati, 'lord of rivers,' is once used to express 'ocean' or 'sea-water.'

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1 i. 158, 5; ii. 35, 3; iii. 33, 4; v. 46, 6, etc.
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Nanā is a familiar name for mother, parallel with Tata, for father, with which it is found in a verse of the Rigveda¹ describing the occupations of the parents of the poet.

1 ix. 112, 3. Cf. Nirukta, vi. 6, and see Upala-prakṣiṇī.

Nanāndr is a word occurring only once in the Rigveda, where it denotes, according to Sāyaṇa, the 'husband's sister,' over whom the wife is to rule. This interpretation is confirmed by the fact that the same position is ascribed to the husband's sister—no doubt while unmarried and living in her brother's care—by the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.²

though its occurrence in the later literature is very rare (it has been noted in the Uttararāmacarita). See the St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

² Av. iii. 13, 1; xiv. 1, 43.

³ Rv. vii. 60, 7.

⁴ Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 1, 6, 6.

⁵ Rv. viii. 2, 2.

⁶ Rv. v. 55, 7; x. 64, 8,

⁷ Satapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 3, 4, 10.

¹ x. 85, 46.

² iii. 22.

Cf. Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 516. The native lexicographers recognize the word,

Napāt in Vedic literature apparently has both the wider sense of 'descendant,' and the narrower one of 'grandson' in the Samhitās. In the Brāhmaṇas the word seems hardly to have the sense of 'descendant' at all, while it denotes not only 'grandson,' but also 'great-grandson' in the sequence 'sons, grandsons, great-grandsons' (putrān, pautrān, naptṛn). 'Grandson' is also expressed by Pautra ('son's son') in the Atharvaveda and later, while the sense of 'great-grandson' is accurately conveyed as early as the Rigveda by Pra-ṇapāt, used beside Napāt, 'grandson.' Naptī, the feminine, is practically limited to the Samhitās, and denotes 'daughter.' The use in the Veda throws no light on the original use of the word.

¹ It is equivalent to 'son' in a number of mythological epithets such as apām, napāt, 'son of waters.'

² Rv. x. 10, 1, clearly 'son'; vi. 20, 11, may be 'grandson.' Most passages, vi. 50, 15; vii. 18, 22; viii. 65, 12; 102, 7; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxi. 61; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xxii. 2, require 'descendant.'

³ As in Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 48: putra-naptāraḥ, 'sons and grandsons.' Gf. Nirukta, viii. 5.

⁴ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 1c, 3; Āpastamba Śrauta Sūtra, x. 11, 5.

⁵ Av. ix. 5, 30; xi. 7, 16; Aitarey Brāhmaņa, vii. ro, 3; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 1, 8, 3.

6 Rv. viii. 17, 13, with napāt.

⁷ Rv. iii. 31, 1 (Nirukta, iii. 4); viii. 2, 42. *Cf.* i. 50, 9; ix. 9, 1; 14, 5; 69, 3; Av. i. 28, 4; ii. 14, 1; vii. 82, 6.

8 Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 403-405; Lanmann, Festgruss an Böhtlingk, 77.

Naptrī, as feminine of Napāt, is found in the Sāmaveda, Āraņya (v. 13).

Nabha(s), Nabhasya. See Māsa.

Nabhāka is the name of a Rṣi who is referred to in the Rigveda¹ and the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.² The Anukramaṇī (Index) attributes to Nābhāka the composition of several hymns of the Rigveda (viii. 39-42).

¹ viii. 40, 4. 5.

² vi. 24.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 107.

Nabhya, the 'nave' of the wheel, is mentioned in the Atharvaveda¹ and later.² See also Nābhi.

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vi. 70, 3; xii. 1, 12.
Aitareya Brāhmaņa, iv. 15; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, iii. 5, 3, 20; Kauşī-
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taki Brāhmaņa, ix. 4; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, i. 3, 23, etc.

Namī Sāpya is the name of a man in the Rigveda.¹ Weber² thinks that he is mentioned as a priest, but the passages suit a king better, and in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa³ he appears as Namī Sāpya, Vaideho rājā, 'King of Videha.' In one passage⁴ he is represented as engaged in the contest against Namuci.

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1 vi. 20, 6; x. 48, 9. Simply Nami in i. 53. 7.
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2 Indische Studien, 1, 231, 232.

3 XXV. 10, 17.

4 Rv. i. 53, 7.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 149; Macdonell, Vedic Myth-

ology, p. 161; Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 49. Sāpya may be read Sāyya, but Sāyaṇa recognizes the p; Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 55, 328.

Nara, Nr.—The general name for 'man' in the Rigveda¹ and later² is Nr, while Nara³ is found occasionally in the later Saṃhitās and the Brāhmaṇas.⁴

¹ i. 25, 5; 167, 20; 178, 3; ii. 34, 6; iii. 16, 4, etc.

² Av. ii. 9, 2; ix. 1, 3; xiv. 2, 9; Aitareya Brāhmana, iii. 34; vi. 27. 32, etc.

³ This form of the word, common in the post-Vedic language, is secondary, having originated from cases like naram, understood as nara-m; but its origin goes back to the Indo-Iranian period. See Brugmann, Grundriss, 2, 106. Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, 318, a 5.

⁴ Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 1, 12, 1; Satapatha Brāhmana, ix. 3, 1, 3; Nirukta, v. 1, etc.

Narācī occurs once in the Atharvaveda, perhaps meaning a poisonous plant.

1 v. 31, 4. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 18, 286.

Narya ('manly') is in two passages of the Rigveda (i. 54, 6; 112, 9) understood by the commentator Sāyaṇa as the proper name of a man. See also Nārya.

Nalada, 'nard' (Nardastachys Jatamansi) is a plant mentioned in the Atharvaveda, in the Aitareya and the Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyakas (where it is mentioned as used for a garland), as well as in the Sūtras. In the Atharvaveda the feminine form of the word, Naladī, occurs as the name of an Apsaras, or celestial nymph.

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      1 vi. 102, 3.
      Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 68.

      2 iii. 2, 4.
      69; Grohmann, Indische Studien, 9, 420;

      3 xi. 4.
      Caland, Altindisches Zauberritual, 177.

      iv. 37, 3.
      n. 4.
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Navaka is mentioned as having wished for a wife at the Sattra of the Vibhindukīyas in the Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa.¹

1 ii. 233 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 18, 38).

Nava-gva occurs in several passages of the Rigveda¹ as a man, an Angiras in the highest degree (Angirastama),² apparently being the type of the Navagvas,³ who appear as a mystic race of olden times, coupled with, and conceived probably as related to, the Angirases. They are often associated with the Daśagvas.⁴

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1 iv. 51, 4; ix. 108, 4; x. 62, 6.
2 x. 62, 6.
3 Rv. i. 62, 4; iii. 39, 5; v. 29, 12;
45, 7. 11; vi. 22, 2; x. 14, 6; 61, 10;
108, 8; Av. xiv. 1, 56; xviii. 3, 20, etc.
4 Rv. i. 62, 4; iv. 51, 4; v. 29, 12; x. 62, 6, etc.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 165; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, pp. 144 (B), 170.
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Nava-nīta, 'fresh butter,' is mentioned frequently in the later Saṃhitās¹ and the Brāhmaṇas.² According to the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa³ this is the kind of butter which is fitted for anointing an embryo (garbha), while the gods receive Ājya, men fragrant ghee (Ghṛta), and the fathers Āyuta. Elsewhere⁴ it is contrasted with Ghṛta and Sarpis.

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 3, 10, 1; vi. 1, 1, 5; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xi. 7; Maitrāyaṇī Samhitā, ii. 3, 4, etc. ² Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 1, 3, 7, 8;

v. 3, 2, 6; Jaiminīya Upanişad Brāhmaņa, ili. 5, 3. 3 i. 3.

⁴ Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 3, 10, 1, etc

Nava-vāstva appears in three passages of the Rigveda. In one he seems to be a protégé of Agni; in another as perhaps a son of Usanas and favourite of Indra, but in the last he seems to be defeated, or even slain, by Indra. But he may be a mythic figure altogether. Cf. also Brhadratha.

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    i. 36, 18.
    vi. 20, 11.
    x 49, 6.
    Cf Bergaigne Religion Vádique
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Cf. Bergaigne, Religion Védique, 2, Perry, Journal of 223; Griffith, Hymns of the Rigveda, 1, Society, 11, 202 581; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 128, Mythology, p. 158.

129; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 147; Über die neuesten Arbeiten auf dem Gebiete der Regvedaforschung, 160; Perry, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 11, 202; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 158.

Nah has been taken by Roth¹ and Grassmann² to be the stem, meaning 'bond,' of the dative form nadbhyas, which occurs once in the Rigveda,³ and which Sieg⁴ thinks means 'sister's sons.' But the sense of this dative is probably rather 'to the grandsons.'⁵

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<sup>1</sup> St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
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⁵ Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, p. 56, 3b.

Nahus occurs several times in the Rigveda, but the exact sense is not certain. Ludwig¹ sees in the Nahus a tribe on the Sindhu (Indus)² or Sarasvatī,³ rich in horses,⁴ allied with the Bharatas and Simyus,⁵ connected with Kakṣīvant and the Vārṣāgiras,⁶ and having as kings Maśarśāra and Āyavasa.⊓ Roth,⁶ on the other hand, sees in Nahus the general sense of 'neighbour' as opposed to a member of one's own people (Viś); this interpretation is supported by the occurrence of the phrase nahuṣo nahuṣṭara,⁶ 'closer than a neighbour.' Nahuṣa has the same sense as Nahus in two passages of the Rigveda,¹¹o but in

² Wörterbuch, s.v.

³ x. 60, 6.

Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 129.

¹ Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 206. ² Rv. i. 31, 11; vi. 22, 10; 46, 7; x. 80, 6.

³ Rv. vii. 95, 2. Cf. ix. 88, 2; 91, 2.

⁴ Rv. viii. 6, 24.

⁵ Rv. i. 100, 18; vii. 18, 5.

⁶ Rv. i. 100, 16. 17.

⁷ Rv. i. 122, 15. Cf. also nahuşo visaḥ, Rv. vii. 6, 5; x. 49, 8; 99, 7, etc.

⁸ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

<sup>Rv. x. 49, 8. Cf. also viii. 8, 3.
i. 31, 11; v. 12, 6.</sup>

one it seems to be intended for the proper name of a man. ¹¹ Possibly Nahus was originally a man like Manu. ¹²

11 Rv. viii. 46, 27.

12 Oldenberg, Sacred Books of the East, 46, 28; Bergaigne, Religion Védique, 2, 324. But Nahus, if it was originally the name of a mythic forefather, cannot have been that of a forefather recognized by all the tribes, for there is no

passage in which it applies to all men. Geldner, Rgveda, Glossar, 92, regards Nahus as a tribe, Nahusa as a king. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 128, leaves the question open. Cf. Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 12, 165, n. 7; 179 et seq.; 307 et seq.

I. Nāka denotes the 'firmament' in the Rigveda¹ and later.² It is often used with the epithet 'highest' (uttama)³ or 'third' (tṛt̄ya)⁴ referring to the threefold division of heaven, parallel to the threefold division of earth, atmosphere, and sky (Div). The Nāka is said to be on the third ridge (pṛṣṭha), above the luminous space (rocana) of the sky.⁵ Elsewhere⁰ the series earth, atmosphere, sky, and the firmament (nāka), heaven (svar), the celestial light (jyotis), occurs. The word nāka is explained in the Brāhmaṇas² as derived from na, 'not,' and aka, 'pain,' because those who go there are free from sorrow.

1 i. 60, 10; 125, 5; iii. 2, 12; iv. 13, 5; vii. 86, 1; 99, 2; viii. 103, 2; ix. 73, 4, etc.

² Av. vii. 18, 1; xviii. 2, 47; xiii. 1, 7; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xv. 10; Pañcavimša Brāhmaņa, xviii. 7, 10; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, viii. 5, 3, 4, etc.

3 Av. iv. 14, 6; xi. 1, 4; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, ix. 10; xii. 63.

4 Av. vi. 122, 4; ix. 5, 1. 4; xviii. 4, 3.

⁵ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xv. 50.

⁶ Av. iv. 14, 3; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvii. 67. In Rv. x. 121, 5, the earth and sky (dyauh), and heaven (svar), and the firmament (nāka), are all mentioned.

7 Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa, x. 1, 18; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, viii. 4, 1, 24; Nirukta, ii. 14; and cf. Chāndogya Upanisad, ii. 10, 5.

Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 9; Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East,

32, 50, 56, 57.

2. Nāka is the name of a teacher in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa.¹ Presumably he is identical with Nāka Maudgalya ('descendant of Mudgala'), who is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,² the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad,³ and the Taittirīya Upaniṣad.⁴

¹ iii. 13, 5.

² xii. 5, 2, I.

³ vi. 4, 4.

⁴ i. 9, I.

Nākra is the name of an aquatic animal included among the victims at the Aśvamedha, or 'horse sacrifice,' in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās.¹ Perhaps the animal meant is the crocodile, which later is called Nakra.²

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<sup>1</sup> Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 13, 1; lowing one version given by Mahī-Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 2; Vāja-dhara on Vājasaneyi Samhitā, loc. cit.: saneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 35.

<sup>2</sup> Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 96, fol-n. 4.
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Nāga appears once in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ in the form mahānāga, where 'great snake' or 'great elephant' may be meant. In the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad,² and in a citation found in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa³ the sense of 'elephant' is clearly intended. In the Sūtras⁴ the mythic Nāga already occurs.

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      1 xi. 2, 7, 12.
      4 Āśvalāyana Gṛhya Sūtra, iii. 4, 1.

      2 i. 3, 24.
      Cf. Winternitz, Sarpabali, 43; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 153.
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Nāgna-jita, 'descendant of Nagnajit,' is the patronymic of Svarjit in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa (viii. 1, 4, 10).

Nāciketa, 'connected with Naciketas,' is the title of a narrative (upākhyāna) in the Kāṭhaka Upaniṣad.¹ The word is also applied as an epithet to a special fire in that Upaniṣad² and in the Taittirīya Upaniṣad.³

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<sup>1</sup> iii. 16.

<sup>2</sup> i. 18; ii. 10.

<sup>3</sup> i. 22, 11; 26, 3. Cf. Weber, Indische as synonyms of fire generally.
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Nāḍa-pit occurs in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ as the birthplace of Bharata. The word may, however, be read as Nāḍa-pitī, the name of Bharata's mother,² but this is less probable.

¹ xiii, 5, 4, 13.

² Weber, Episches im vedischen Ritual, Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 81.

6, n. 3.

- 1. Nādī denotes a 'vein' or 'artery' in the human body in the Atharvaveda 1 and later, 2 a natural extension of the literal sense of 'reed.'
 - 1 vi. 138, 4; x, 7, 15. 16. 2 Kāthaka Samhitā, xii. 10; Sata-

āraņyaka Upanisad, ii. 1, 21; iv. 2. 3, etc.; Chāndogya Upanisad, viii. 6, 1; patha Brāhmana, x. 4, 5, 2; Brhad- Kausītaki Upanisad, iv. 19.

- 2. Nādī means a musical instrument, a 'reed flute,' in the Rigveda¹ as well as the Kāthaka Samhitā,² where in one passage it is mentioned along with the Tūnava.3
 - 1 x. 135, 7.
 - 2 xxiii. 4; xxxiv. 5.
 - 3 xxxiv. 5.

Cf. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 329.

- 3. Nādī in the Yajurveda Samhitās1 seems to mean the box of the chariot wheel.
 - 1 Taittiriya Samhitā, iii. 4, 8, 3; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxxvii. 12.

Nādīkā occurs once in the Atharvaveda, where the sense seems clearly to be 'wind-pipe,' with a reference also to the 'shaft of an arrow' made of reed.

1 v. 18, 8. Cf. Weber, Indische of the Atharvaveda, 251; Bloomfield, Studien, 18, 229; Whitney, Translation Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 432.

Nātha in Vedic literature appears only as a neuter meaning 'protection,' and is of rare occurrence.2 Generally, too, very little appears in Vedic literature of practices such as those which produced Anglo-Saxon society or the Roman patronatus.

13; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 6, 4, 1. Also in Av. xiii. 2, 37, nātha-kāma, 'seeking help'; xi. 1, 15, nātha-vid, 'finding help '; Pañcavimsa Brāhmana, xiv. 11, 23, nātha-vindu, 'procuring mon,

1 Av. iv. 20, 9; ix. 2, 17; xviii. 1, | protection,' as the name of a Saman, or chant.

² In the post-Vedic literature, on the other hand, the word is a masculine, meaning 'protector,' and is very com-

Nāpita, 'barber,' is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaņa1 and later.2 But the older word is Vaptr,3 a derivative of

[·] m. 1, 2, 2.

2 Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, vii. 2, 8. | 13; Āśvalāyana Grhya Sūtra, i. 17.

vap, 'shave,' with forms of which verb shaving is referred to as early as the Rigveda.⁴ The dead were shaved before burial.⁵

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4 x. 142, 4. Cf. i. 65, 4; Av. vi. 68; Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 266; Wax Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 5 Av. v. 19, 4.
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Nābhāka, 'descendant of Nabhāka,' is the name of a Rṣi, or seer, in the Rigveda.¹ The Anukramaṇī (Index) ascribes three or four hymns of the Rigveda² to him. According to Ludwig,³ the man was an Āṅgirasa,⁴ not a Kaṇva.

- viii. 41, 2; Nirukta, x. 5.
 viii. 39.41, and doubtfully 42.
- 3 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 107.
- 4 viii, 40, 12.

Nābhā-nediṣṭha ('nearest in descent') Mānava ('descendant of Manu') is famous in the later Saṃhitās and the Brāhmaṇas¹ for the way in which he was treated when his father Manu divided his property among his sons, or they divided it: Nābhānediṣṭha was left out, but was solaced by obtaining, through his father's advice, cows from the Aṅgirases, a feat which is regarded in the Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra² as on a level with the exploits of other seers who celebrated their patrons in hymns, and as giving rise to the hymn, Rigveda x. 62. Nābhānediṣṭha's hymn is repeatedly mentioned in the Brāhmaṇas,³ but beyond its authorship nothing is recorded of him. In the Saṃhitā⁴ itself he seems to be spoken of as a poet in one passage, which is, however, of quite uncertain meaning.

Nābhānediṣtha is etymologically connected in all probability with Nabānazdiṣta in the Avesta, which refers to the Fravaṣi of the paoiryō tkaēsha and the Fravaṣi of the Nabānazdiṣta. Lassen⁵ saw in the legend a reminiscence of an Indo-Iranian split; but Roth⁶ showed conclusively that this was impossible, and that Nābhānediṣtha meant simply 'nearest in birth,' and

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, iii. 1. 9. 4-6; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, v. 14. Cf. Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 1², 191 et seq.

² xvi. 11. 28-30.

³ Kauşitaki Brāhmaņa, xxviii. 4, merely refers to him as connected with the Angirases. See also ibid., xxx. 4;

Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vi. 30. 31; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xx. 9, 4.

⁴ x. 61, 18.

⁵ Indische Alterthumskunde, 1, 520, and Addenda, p. lxxvii.

⁶ Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 6, 243 et seq.

Weber admiss that the connexion of the words is not one of borrowing on either side, but that in the Avesta it has kept its original sense of 'nearest relation,' while in the Rigveda it has become a proper name.

7 Episches im vedischen Ritual, 40-50. Cf. also Daya.

1. Nābhi develops from the literal sense of 'navel' the figurative meaning of 'relationship,'1 or, concretely, 'relation.'2

1 i. 105, 9; 164, 33; ii. 3, 9; 40, 4, | 2 Rv. i. 163, 12; vi. 47, 28; Vājaetc.; Av. xii. 1, 40; Vājasaneyi Samsaneyi Samhitā, xiii. 42. 44. 50, etc. hitā, x. 8; xi. 12; xx. 1, etc.

2. Nābhi, 'nave' of a chariot wheel, is mentioned in the Rigveda¹ and later.² See also Ratha, and cf. Nabhya.

1 v. 43, 8; vi. 39, 4; viii. 41, 6. ² Av. iii. 30, 6; x. 8, 34; xi. 7, 4; Kathaka Samhita, xi. 4; Brhadaranyaka | iii. 2, 4; Kausitaki Upanisad, iii. 8.

Upanisad, ii. 5, 11; Chāndogya Upanişad, vii. 15, 1; Aitareya Āraņyaka,

Nāma-dheya, 'name,' is found in the Rigveda,1 and often in the later language.2 See Nāman.

1 x. 71, 1. 2 Av. vii. 109, 6; Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 4, 9, 3; iii. 3, 4, 1; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xiii. 1, 6, 1; Brhadāranyaka Upanișad, ii. 3, 11; vi. 4, 25; Chândogya Upanisad, vi. 1, 4; Aitareya Upanisad, v. 2, etc.

Nāman, 'name,' is a common word from the Rigveda onwards. The Grhya Sūtras1 give elaborate rules for the formation of the names of children, but more important is the distinction between the secret (gulya) and the ordinary name, though the rules as to the secret name are not at all consistent. The secret name is already recognized in the Rigveda,2 and is referred to in the Brāhmaņas,3 one secret name, that of Arjuna for Indra, being given in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa.4 It is to be noted that the rule as to giving the

1 Weber, Naxatra, 2, 316 et seq.; Hillebrandt, Rituallitteratur, 46, 47; Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 152.

² Cf. x. 55, 2; 71, 1, as explained in Aitareya Āranyaka, i. 3, 3.

3 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, vi. 1, 3, 9 (the name is given to a child at birth); Brhadāranyaka Upanişad, vi. 4, 25.

4 ii. 1, 2, 11; v. 4, 3, 7; Weber, 2, 317, n. 3.

designation of a Nakṣatra (lunar asterism) as the secret name or otherwise is not illustrated by a single recorded name of a teacher in the Brāhmanas.5

The Satapatha Brāhmaṇa6 several times mentions the adoption of a second name with a view to securing success. and also refers to the adoption of another name for purposes of distinction.7

In actual practice two names are usually found in the Brāhmaņas, the second being a patronymic or a metronymic, as in Kakşīvant Auśija⁸ (if the story of the slave woman Uśij as his mother is correct), or Brhaduktha Vāmneya,9 'son of Vāmnī,' though the relationship may, of course, be not direct parentage, but more remote descent.10 Three names are less common—for example, Kūśāmba Svāyava Lātavya,11 'son of Svāyu, of the Lātavya (son of Latu) family,' or Devataras Śyāvasāyana Kāśyapa,12 where the patronymic and the Gotra name are both found. In other cases the names probably have a local reference—e.g., Kauśāmbeya and Gāngya. quently the patronymic only is given, as Bhargava, Maudgalya, etc., or two patronymics are used. The simple name is often used for the patronymic—e.g., Trasadasyu.13 In a few cases the name of the wife is formed from the husband's name, 14 as Usinarāņi, Purukutsāni, Mudgalāni.

Rauhiņa, Rauhiņāyana.

6 iii. 6, 2, 24; v. 3, 3, 14; ix. 4, 3, 3, which directs that the name should be derived from a feast performed by the person in question. See also Kāthaka Samhitā, xxvi. 4; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, ii. 7, 17.

7 Satapatha Brahmana, ii. 4, 4, 4.

Cf. vi. 1, 3, 9.

8 Pañcavimsa Brāhmana, xiv. 11, 17.

9 Ibid., xiv. 9, 38.

10 Pargiter, Journal of the Royal Asiatic

⁵ Weber, 2, 318, 319. See Aṣāḍha, | Society, 1910, 14; Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 55, n. 2.

11 Pañcavimsa Brāhmana, viii. 6, 8.

12 Jaiminiya Upanisad Brāhmaņa,

13 Satapatha Brāhmana, vi. 1, 2, 13; Hopkins, Religions of India, 201, n. 2.

14 Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, p. 135.

Cf. Weber, op. cit., 2, 316-320; Hopkins, loc. cit.

Nāmba is the name of a kind of grain mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.¹ Āmba is the form of the word in the Taittirīya Samhitā 2 and the Kāthaka Samhitā.3

Nāya in two passages of the Rigveda is, according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary, probably a proper name. Sāyaṇa takes the word to mean 'leader,' while Pischel2 considers it a gerund with passive sense.

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explanations, see Oldenberg, Rgveda-
1 vi. 24, 10; 46, 11.
2 Vedische Studien, 1, 41. For other Noten, 1, 123, 370.
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Nārada is the name of a mythical seer mentioned several times in the Atharvaveda.1 In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa he appears in conjunction with Parvata as priest of Hariscandra,2 as teaching Somaka Sahadevya,3 and as anointing Ambasthya and Yudhāmśrauşti.4 In the Maitrāyanī Samhitā5 he is mentioned as a teacher, and in the Sāmavidhāna Brāhmaņa6 as a pupil of Bṛhaspati. In the Chāndogya Upaniṣad7 he is coupled with Sanatkumāra.

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1 v. 19, 9; xii. 4, 16. 24. 41.
 2 vii. 13. Cf. Śānkhāyana Śrauta
Sūtra, xv. 17.
 3 vii. 34.
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Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 204, n.

Nārāśaṃsī (scil. Rc), '(verse) celebrating men,' is mentioned as early as the Rigveda, and is distinguished from Gatha in a number of passages in the later literature.2 The Kāthaka Samhitā,3 while distinguishing the two, asserts that both are false (anrtam). It is hardly probable that the two were absolutely distinct, for the Taittiriya Brāhmana4 has the phrase 'a Gāthā celebrating men' (nārāśamsī). What such verses were may be seen from the Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra,5 which enumerates the Nārāśamsāni at the Purusamedha, or 'human

1 x, 85, 6. 2 Av. xv. 6, 4; Taittiriya Samhitā, vii. 5, 11, 2; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vi. 32; Kausītaki Brāhmaņa, xxx. 5; Kāthaka Samhitā, v. 5, 2; Taittiriya Aranyaka, ii. 10, etc.; Weber, Indische Studien, 5, 78. The passage, Satapatha Brahmana, xi. 5, 6, 8, is uncertain. See Eggeling, Sucred Books of the East, 44, 98, n. 5. 3 xiv. 5; Weber, Indische Streifen, 1, 98.

4 i. 3, 2, 6. 5 xvi. 11, 1 et seq.; Weber, Episches im vedischen Ritual, 10 et seg.

⁴ viii. 21.

⁵ i. 5, 8. 6 iii. 9 (the Vamsa, or 'list of teachers,' at the end). 7 vii. I. I.

They may legitimately be reckoned ar a source of sacrifice.'

the epic.6

The term Nārāśaṃsī is restricted in some passages7 to a particular group of three verses of the Atharvaveda,8 but Oldenberg⁹ must be right in holding that the restricted sense is not to be read into the Rigveda.10 Not even in the Taittirīya Samhitā 11 is the technical sense certain, and the Bṛhaddevatā 12 gives the word a general application.

- 6 Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 264, n. Bloomfield, Atharvaveda, 100 (cf. Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 688, 689), lays stress rather on their character as mere eulogies of donors, and that, no doubt, was one of their sides; but the other elements may have been more prominent in reality than the priestly tradition
- 7 Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vi. 32; Kauşītaki Brāhmana, xxx. 5. Possibly, in the other passages mentioned in note 2,

the reference may be to the Atharvaveda verses, but this is not at all likely.

8 xx. 127, 1-3 = Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xii. 14, 1-3. Cf. Scheftelowitz, Die Apokryphen des Rgveda, 155.

9 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 238.

10 х. 85, б.

11 vii. 5, II, 2.

12 iii. 154.

Cf. Weber, Episches im Vedischen Ritual, 4 et seq.

Nārī, 'woman,' occurs in the Rigveda1 and later.2 The word seems in the Rigveda³ to have a distinct reference to a woman as a wife, because it occurs in several passages with distinct reference to matrimonial relations,3 and in the later Vedic literature, where it is not common, it sometimes 4 has that sense. Delbrück,⁵ however, thinks that it does not indicate marital relations, but merely the woman as the sexual complement of the man.

1 vii. 20, 5; 55, 8; viii. 77, 8; x. 18, 7; 86, 10. 11.

² Av. xiv. 2, 13; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiii. 36; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, iii. 34.

3 i. 73, 3 (pati-justā, 'dear to her husband'); vii. 20. 5; x. 18, 7 (avidhavāh supatnih, 'not widowed, with noble husbands'), etc.

4 Gautama Dharma Sūtra, ix. 28.

5 Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 417, 439.

Nārmara occurs once in a corrupt verse of the Rigveda.1 Ludwig2 regards the word as the proper name of the prince of a fort, Urjayanti, but Roth3 as that of a demon.

¹ ii. 13, 8.

² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 152.

³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Navaprabhramsana] PATRONYMICS-DELUGE MOUNTAIN 447

Nārmiņī is found in the Rigveda¹ as an epithet of Pur, 'fort': it must apparently either be a proper name of the fort,² or mean 'belonging to Narmin or Narmiṇa,' some prince.³

1 i. 149, 3.

² Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 204.

³ Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. Possibly the expression may con-

sist of two words—na, 'not' or 'like,' and armini, whatever that may mean. See Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 148; Sacred Books of the East, 46, 177.

Nārya, 'descendant of Narya,' is the name of a generous donor in the Rigveda.¹

1 viii. 24, 29. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 161, 162.

Nārṣada, 'descendant of Nṛṣad,' is the patronymic of Kaṇva (i.e., a descendant of Kaṇva) in the Atharvaveda,¹ and in one passage of the Rigveda,² where probably the same man is referred to in another passage³ as a protégé of the Aśvins, and perhaps as the husband of Ruśatī. But in a third passage of the Rigveda⁴ the name seems applied to a demon, though this is not certain.

1 iv. 19, 2.

2 x. 31, 11.

3 i. 117, 8.

4 x. 61, 13.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 108, 150; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 397.

Nāva-prabhraṃśana, the 'sliding down of the ship,' is read in Whitney and Roth's text of the Atharvaveda,¹ and has been connected by Weber² and others³ with Manor Avasarpaṇa, the name in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa⁴ of the northern mountain on which Mauu's ship settled on the subsidence of the deluge. But both Bloomfield⁵ and Whitney⁶ point out that this interpretation is highly improbable, and this view is accepted by

1 xix. 39, 8, where the reading nāvaprabhráméana is a conjectural emendation, the manuscripts of the Samhitā text all having two accents, nāvaprabhráméana (one of them reading nāvaļ.). 2 Indische Streifen, 1, 11.

³ Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the

Rigveda, 3, 198; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, 218, n.; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 30.

4 i. 3, 1, 6.

5 Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 679.

6 Translation of the Atharvaveda,

Macdonell.7 The expression is analyzed as na ava-prabhramsana by the Pada text and the commentator alike, and is never found elsewhere with reference to the descent of a boat or ship.8

Weber's interpretation in his Sanskrit Literature, 144, is withdrawn.

7 Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, | as the first member of a compound in 1907, 1107, where his acceptance of the form of nava, while pra-bhrams. 'fall down,' is never used of the gliding down of a boat, and would be ⁸ The word nau, ship, never occurs | inappropriately applied in that sense.

Nāvā, 'ship,' occurs once in the Rigveda (i. 97, 8). See Nau.

Nāvāja ('ship-propeller'), a 'boatman,' is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmana (ii. 3, 3, 5).

Nāvyā is found several times in the Rigveda¹ and the later literature2 in the sense of a 'navigable stream.'

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xxiii. 6; Śatapatha Brāhmana, x. 5, 4,
1 i. 33, 11; 80, 8; 121, 13.
2 Av. viii. 5, 9; Kāthaka Samhitā, 14, etc.
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Nāhuṣa, like Nahus, means, according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary, in some passages of the Rigveda1 'neighbouring' as an adjective, and once 2 as a substantive 'neighbour.' If, on the other hand, Nahus is taken as a proper name, then Nāhuṣa no doubt denotes 'belonging to the Nahus people,' and, as a substantive, 'King of the Nahus.'

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1 i. 100, 16; v. 73, 3; vi. 22, 10; viii. 6, 24.
                                                                <sup>2</sup> viii. 95, 2.
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Nikothaka Bhāya-jātya ('descendant of Bhayajāta') is mentioned in the Vamsa Brāhmaņa1 as a pupil of Pratithi.

Nigada Pārņa-valki ('descendant of Parņavalka') is mentioned in the Vamsa Brahmana as a pupil of Girisarman.

¹ Indische Studien, 4. 373. Cf. Max Müller, Ancient Sanskrit Literature, 444.

¹ Indische Studien, 4., 372. Cf. Max Müller, Ancient Sanskrit Literature, 443.

Ni-gut occurs in two passages of the Rigveda, where Sāyaṇa takes it to mean 'enemy,' a possible interpretation. Ludwig2 suggests that non-Āryan foes are meant.

¹ ix. 97, 53, 54; x, 128, 6. ² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 164.

Nigustha is a term of unknown meaning applied in the Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra (xvi. 29, 6) to the peoples of Kāśi, Videha, and Kosala.

1. Ni-tatnī, 'striking downwards,' occurs in the Atharvaveda1 as the name of an unknown plant which was used as a means of restoring the hair.

to this plant. Cf. Kausitaki Sūtra, xxxi. 28, with Caland's note in his translation; Bloomfield, Atharvaveda,

1 vi. 136; probably 137 also refers | 61; Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 536, 537; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 383.

2. Ni-tatnī is the name of one of the seven Kṛttikās in the Taittirīya Brāhmaņa (iii. 1, 4, 1). See Nakṣatra.

Ni-tāna Māruta is the name of a man in the Kāthaka Samhitā (xxv. 10).

Ni-dagha ('burning down'), 'summer,' is the name of one of the seasons in the Satapatha Brāhmana (xiii. 8, 1, 4). See Naidagha.

Ni-dana is the name of a Sutra, which is referred to in the Brhaddevatā1 apparently as containing a quotation from the The quotation cannot be verified in Bhāllavi Brāhmaņa. the existing text of the Sūtra.2

¹ v. 23, with Macdonell's note. 2 Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 65.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 44; Max Müller, Ancient Sanskrit Literature,

450 NET-TREASURE-CISTERN-VALLEY-SUNSET [Nidhā

Ni-dhā, 'net,' is mentioned in the Rigveda 1 and later.2

1 ix. 83, 4; x. 73, 11; Nirukta, iv. 2. 2 Aitareya Brāhmaņa, iii. 19.

Ni-dhi means primarily '(place of) deposit,' 'store,' and then 'treasure' generally. In the Chāndogya Upaniṣad Nidhi denotes some sort of science.

¹ Rv. i. 183, 4; v. 43, 8; vii. 67, 7; 69, 3, etc.

² Rv. ii. 24, 6; viii. 29, 6; x. 68, 6; Av. x. 7, 23, etc.

3 vii. 1, 2. 4; 2, 1; 7, 1. The St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., and Böhtlingk in his edition, take daivo

nidhih as one expression. See Daiva. Sāyaṇa takes each as a separate entity, and renders Nidhi as mahākālādinidhi-śāstram, presumably meaning some sort of chronology.

Cf. for Nidhi as 'treasure,' Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 103, 104.

Ni-nāhya denotes in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (iii. 9, 2, 8) a 'water jar,' so called, according to the commentator, because it was buried in the ground. Eggeling explains it as 'a vessel or cistern dug into the ground for keeping water cool.'

1 As meaning etymologically 'to be | 2 Sacred Books of the East, 26, 223, fastened or fixed down.'

Ninditāśva ('possessing contemptible steeds') is the name of a patron in the Rigveda.¹ The name may suggest connexion with Iran, but such a reference is not at all necessary.² Sāyaṇa ingeniously turns the name—probably a nickname—into a compliment by rendering it 'one who puts to shame the horses of his rivals.'

¹ viii. 1, 30. | Oriental Society, 17, 90. Cf. Ludwig, ² Hopkins, Journal of the American | Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 159.

Ni-pāda in the Rigveda (v. 83, 7) denotes 'low ground,' valley,' as opposed to 'hill' (udvat). Cf. Nivat.

Ni-mrue, 'sunset,' is repeatedly mentioned in the Rigveda¹ and later² as a division of time.

1 i. 151, 5; 161, 10; viii. 27, 19; hitā, i. 5, 10, 2; Kāthaka Samhitā, x. 151, 5.

2 Av. xiii. 3, 21; Taittirīya Sam- 2, etc.

Nir-aṣṭa, 'castrated,' is found in some of the later Samhitās¹ as applied to oxen, and in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa² to horses.

 1 Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 8, 9, 1 ; 17, 1 ; Kāthaka Samhitā, xv. 4. 9. 2 xiii. 4, 2, 5.

Nir-āla occurs once in the Atharvaveda, where Sāyaņa regards it as the name of a disease. Bloomfield, with the Padapāṭha, explains it as two words, understanding nir as an elliptical imperative, (go) out, with the vocative $\bar{a}la$, a kind of weed. Whitney at first took $\bar{a}la$ to be a verbal form, but finally came to the conclusion that the expression is one word, $nir\bar{a}la$, of unknown sense.

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<sup>1</sup> vi. 16, 3.

<sup>2</sup> Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 466.

<sup>3</sup> Translation of the Atharvaveda, 292.
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Nirukta, 'explanation' of a word or passage, is found in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (viii. 3, 3), but does not appear as the name of a work before the later Upaniṣads. It is, however, probable that Yāska's Nirukta is not later than the rise of Buddhism. Cf. Nirvacana.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 13, | Literature, 269, 270; Keith, Aitarcya 17; 3, 260 et seq.; Indian Literature, 25, | Aranyaka, 24, 25; Roth, Nirukta, xv. 26, 41, 42, etc.; Macdonell, Sanskrit | et seq.

Nir-yāsa denotes the 'exudation' of trees. In the Taittirīya Saṃhitā (ii. 1, 5, 4) it is tabooed as food because of its red colour.

Nir-vacana in the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka¹ and the Nirukta² means 'explanation,' especially etymological. Cf. Nirukta.

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1 i. 6, 3.
2 ii. 1. Cf. a-nirvacanam, 'not vii. 24.
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Ni-vat denotes 'valley' in the Rigveda 1 and later.2

1 i. 161, 11; iii. 2, 10; vii. 50, 4; 2 Av. vi. 22, 3; Taittirīya Samhitā, x. 127, 2; 142, 4.

29-2

Nivānya-vatsā and Nivānyā in the Satapatha Brāhmaņa1 denotes a 'cow with a calf to which she has to be won over,' that is, with a calf substituted for one of her own which has died. Nivānyā2 is a contracted form of the compound term. Similar expressions are abhivānya-vatsā,3 abhivānyā,4 vānyā,5 and apivānya-vatsā.6

- 1 xii. 5, I, 4.
- 2 ii. 6. 1, 6. 3 Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vii. 2.
- 4 Taittiriya Brāhmana, i. 6, 8, 4.
- 5 Ibid., ii. 6, 16, 2.
- 6 Kausika Sūtra, lxxxii. 22.
- Cf. Lanman in Whitney's Translation of the Atharvaveda, 880.

Ni-vid denotes a brief invocation of the deity that is invited in a liturgy in honour of the god. The Brāhmaņas1 repeatedly mention Nivids as inserted in the Sastras (recitations), and the Khilas of the Rigveda² preserve among them a set of Nivids. But it is doubtful3 whether the habit of using such brief formulas-the Nivid is usually not more than a Pada or quarter-verse in length-is known to the Rigveda, though it has been seen even there,4 and the word Nivid is several times found in that Samhita,5 but hardly in the technical sense of the Brāhmaṇas. In the later Saṃhitās6 the technical sense is common.

1 Aitareya Brāhmaņa, ii. 33. 34; iii. 10. 11; vi. 33. 35; Kausītaki Brāhmaņa, xiv. 1; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, iii. 9, 3, 28; xiii. 5, 1. 9, etc.; Aitareya Āraņyaka, i. 5, 2; Śānkhāyana Āraņyaka, i. 3, etc.

² See Scheftelowitz, Die Apokryphen

des Rgveda, 137-143.

3 The antiquity of the Nivids was asserted by Haug, Aitareya Brāhmana, I, 26 et seq., and often since, e.g., by Tilak, Orion, 206; Scheftelowitz, op. cit., 3. It is shown to be most improbable by Weber, Indische Studien, 9, 265, 355, and Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 242 et seq.; Göttingische Gelehrte Anzeigen, 1907, 232, 233.

4 i. 86, 4; Bezzenberger's Beiträge, 9, 192. So Oldenberg, Sacred Books of the East, 46, 119, 122, takes Rv. i. 96, 2, to refer to the Nivids in the technical sense, but not to the Nivids as preserved.

⁵ i. 89, 3; 96, 2; 175, 6; ii. 36, 6; iv. 18, 7; vi. 67, 10.

6 Av. v. 26, 4; xi. 7, 19; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 25, etc.

Cf. Hillebrandt, Rituallitteratur, 102; Oldenberg, Religion des Vedu, 387, n. 2; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 12, 241.

Nivid-dhāna, 'containing a Nivid,' is found several times as an epithet of a hymn or verse in the Brāhmaņas.1

¹ Aitareya Brāhmaņa, iii. 17; Kauṣī- patha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 5, 1, 12; Aitareya taki Brāhmaṇa, xxi. 6; xxiv. 4; Śata- Āraṇyaka, i. 2, 2; 5, 3.

Ni-veśana, 'dwelling,' occurs in the Rigveda¹ and the Sūtras. In the latter² the word is sometimes contrasted with Gṛha as the resting-place of animals.

¹ iv. 19, 9; vii. 19, 5.
² Āśvalāyana Gṛhya Sūtra, iv. 6, etc.

Ni-ṣaṅgathi¹ or Niṣaṅga-dhi² is found in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās. If the second form of the word is correct, the sense may be 'sheath of a sword' (niṣaṅga), as it is taken by the St. Petersburg Dictionary, but probably the first form is the correct one, the word then having the same meaning as Niṣaṅgin.

1 Kāthaka Samhitā, xvii. 11; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 9, 2.

² Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvi. 10.

Ni-ṣaṅgin is found three times in the Rigveda,¹ where, owing to its following in one passage² the words sudhanvāna iṣumanto, 'having good bows and arrows,' the sense of niṣaṅginaḥ as 'having quivers' seems quite certain. In the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā³ it is taken by the commentator Mahīdhara to mean 'having a sword,' a sense which is quite possible both there and in the other passages⁴ where it occurs. But the word far more probably means 'having a quiver,' for the bow was the Vedic weapon, not the sword (Asi).

1 iii. 30, 15; v. 57, 2; x. 103, 3.

² v. 57, 2.

3 xvi. 20. Cf. Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xx. 2, 11, with the commentator.

4 Sāmaveda, ii. 1199; Kāthaka Samhitā, xvii. 12; xxxvii. 11; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 9, 3; Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 5, 3, 1; Satapatha Brāhmana, xiii. 4, 2, 5.

Cf. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 274.

Ni-ṣāda is found in the later Saṃhitās and the Brāhmaṇas.¹ The word seems to denote not so much a particular tribe, but to be the general term for the non-Āryan tribes who were not under Āryan control, as the Śūdras were, for Aupamanyava² took the five peoples (pañca janāḥ) to be the four castes (catvāro

1 Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 5, 4, 2; Kāthaka Samhitā, xvii. 13; Maitrāyamī Samhitā, ii. 9, 5; Vājasaneyi Samhitā,

xvi. 27; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, viii. 11; Pañcaviņša Brāhmaņa, xvi. 6, 8, etc. 2 In Yāska, Nirukta, iii. 8. varņāh) and the Niṣādas, and the commentator, Mahīdhara explains the word where it occurs in the Vajasaneyi Samhita3 as meaning a Bhilla, or Bhīl. A village of Niṣādas is mentioned in the Lātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra,4 and a Niṣāda Sthapati, a leader of some kind, is referred to in the Katyayana Śrauta Sūtra⁵ and in a Brāhmana cited by the scholiast on that passage. Weber thinks that the Nisadas were the settled aborigines (from ni, 'down,' and sad, 'settle'), a view supported by the fact that the ritual of the Viśvajit sacrifice? requires a temporary residence with Niṣādas; for the Niṣādas who would permit an Aryan to reside temporarily amongst them must have been partially amenable to Aryan influence. But the name might easily be applied to the whole body of aborigines outside the Āryan organization. Von Schroeder⁸ thinks that the Niṣādas were most probably identical with the Nysæans, who, according to the Greek account, sent an embassy to Alexander when he was in the territory of the Aśvakas, but this identification is doubtful.

the Niṣāda is the offspring of a Brāhmaṇa and of a Śūdra woman, while the Bṛhatsaṃhitā of Varāhamihira (xiv. 10) recognizes a kingdom (rāṣṭra) of Niṣādas in the south-east of Madhyadeśa. In the Pāli texts (Fick, Die sociale Gliederung, 12, 160, 206 et seq.) they are wild hunters and fishers. Cf. also Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 12, 301, 303, 366, n. 164, 403, 481.

Niṣka is frequently found in the Rigveda¹ and later² denoting a gold ornament worn on the neck, as is shown by the two epithets niṣka-kaṇṭha³ and niṣka-grīva,⁴ 'having a gold ornament on the neck.' A Niṣka of silver is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.⁵ As early as the Rigveda⁶ traces are seen of the

³ xvi. 27. Cf. xxx. 8.

⁴ viii. 2, 8.

⁵ i. 1, 12; Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 13.

⁶ Indische Studien, 9, 340. Cf. 10, 13, 16.

⁷ See Kauşitaki Brāhmaņa, xxv. 15; Lātyāyana, loc. cit.; Pañcavimśa Brāhmaņa, loc. cit.

⁸ Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 366.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 39,

¹ ii. 33, 10; viii. 47, 15, etc.

² Av. v. 14, 3; vii. 99, 1; xx. 131, 8; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iv. 2, 1. 2; v. 13, 2; Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, i. 36, 7. 8; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 1, 7. 11, etc.

³ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 22.

⁴ Rv. v. 19, 3; Av. v. 17, 14.

⁵ xvii. 1, 14, as worn by the Vrātya. Cf. Av. xv. 3.

⁶ i. 126, 2.

use of Niṣkas as a sort of currency, for a singer celebrates the receipt of a hundred Niṣkas and a hundred steeds: he could hardly require the Niṣkas merely for purposes of personal adornment. Later the use of Niṣkas as currency is quite clear. Cf. also Kṛṣṇala.

⁷ Av. xx. 127, 3; Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, ix. 9, 20, etc. In the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 4, 1, 1. 8; Gopatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 6; the sense of 'coin' is seen by Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 50, 51, and by Geldner, Vedische Studien, 2, 185.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 51, 259, 263; Geldner, op. cit., 1, 268, n. 2; Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 40, 127.

Niṣkirīya is the name of a school of priests who are mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa¹ as holding a Sattra, or 'sacrificial session.'

1 xii. 5, 14. Cf. Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 58.

Niṣṭya means in the Rigveda¹ and later² an outsider or stranger. Hence the constellation usually known as Svāti (see Nakṣatra) is named Niṣṭyā in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa,³ because it occupies a position markedly away from the ecliptic.

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1 vi. 75, 19; viii. 1, 13; x. 133, 5.
2 Av. iii. 3, 6; Vājasaneyi, v. 23;
Satapatha Brāhmaņa, i. 6, 4, 17, etc.

3 i. 5, 2, 2, 3; iii. 1, 1, 13.

Cf. Max Müller, Sacred Books of the
East, 32, 215.
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Nihākā in the Rigveda¹ and the Taittirīya Samhitā² appears to denote some phenomenon of a storm, perhaps the 'whirlwind.'

2 vii. 5, 11, 1 (following nīhāra).

Nīksaņa. See Neksaņa.

Nīcya ('living below') is a designation of certain nations of the west. The Nīcyas are mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (viii. 14) as distinguished from the people of Madhyadeśa, and no doubt mean the inhabitants of the Indus and Panjab regions.

Nītha ('leading'), neut., means musical 'mode' and then 'hymn of praise.' The feminine form Nīthā occurs once in the Rigveda 2 meaning 'artifice.'

1 Rv. iv. 3, 16; vii. 26, 2; x. 92, 3; Aitareya Brāhmana, ii. 38. Cf. nīthāvid of singers (jarity) in Rv. iii. 12, 5. 2 i. 104, 5. Cf. the epithet śata-nītha, | Cf. Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 12, 241.

i. 100, 12; 179, 3; x. 69, 7; sahasranīthā, iii. 60, 7; ix. 85, 4; 96, 18 (used of the poet's art, padavih kavinām).

Nīnāha, a word occurring once in the Atharvaveda (xix. 57, 4), seems to denote a 'girdle' or something similar, as derived from the verb nah, 'fasten.'

Nīpātithi occurs in the Rigveda¹ as the name of a man to whom a hymn2 is ascribed by the Anukramani (Index). A Sāman, or Chant, of his is mentioned in the Pañcavimśa Brāhmana.3

1 viii. 49, 9, where he appears as engaged in battle; viii. 51, 1, where he seems to be a sacrificer. Either a king or a seer may be meant.

² viii. 34. Cf. Ludwig, Translation

of the Rigveda, 3, 140; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 90.

3 xiv, 10, 4.

Nīlangu is the name of a species of 'worm' in the Yajurveda Samhitās1 in the list of victims at the Asvamedha, or 'horse sacrifice.'

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 11, 1; | nīlāngu); Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 30. Maitrayani Samhita, iii. 14, 11 (v.l. | Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 98.

Nīla-śīrṣṇī, 'black-headed,' is the name of an unknown animal in the list of victims at the Asvamedha, or 'horse sacrifice,' in the Taittirīya Samhitā.1

1 v. 5, 15, 1. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 99.

Nīlāgalasāla, or, as the Paippalāda version reads, Nīlākalasālā, is the name, according to the commentator, of a graincreeper in the Atharvaveda.1

1 vi. 16, 4. Cf. Whitney, Transla- | Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, tion of the Atharvaveda, 292, 293; 466.

457 Nīvāra, 'wild rice,' is mentioned in the Yajurveda Samhitās¹ and the Brāhmaņas.2

1 Kāthaka Samhitā, xii. 4; Maitrā-3, 3, 5; Taittirīya Brāhmana, i. 3, 6, 7, yanī Samhitā, iii. 4, 10; Vājasaneyi etc. Samhitā, xviii. 12. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, ² Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 1, 4, 14; Cf. 240.

Nīvi is the name of the 'undergarment,' probably a simple apron of cloth, worn by both men and women, but especially by the latter. It is mentioned in the Atharvaveda and later.2

1 viii. 2, 16; xiv. 2, 50. Cf. nīvi- | Vājasaneyi Samhitā, iv. 10; Satapatha bhārya, 'to be borne in the apron,' viii. 6, 20.

² Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 1, 1, 3; | Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 331.

Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 3, 6; iii. 2, 1, 15, etc. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 262:

Nīhāra, 'mist,' occurs in the Rigveda¹ and later.²

1 x. 82, 7. ² Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 5, 11, 1; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxviii. 4; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxii. 26; xxv. 9; Av. vi. 113,

2; xviii. 3, 60; Taittirīya Āraņyaka, i. 10, 7; vi. 4, 1; Chāndogya Upanisad, iii. 19, 2, etc.

Nr. See Nara.

Nrti in one passage of the Atharvaveda1 seems to mean a bag of skin. But though the Paippalada recension has the same text, it is clear that we must read Drti with Roth 2 and Whitney.3 Ludwig4 renders the word 'dancer,' which makes no sense in the context.

1 vi. 18, 3.

² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

3 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 294. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 5, 235; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 468.

4 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 514.

Nṛtū occurs once in the Rigveda¹ denoting a female 'dancer.' In another passage² Nrti is found coupled with hāsa, 'laughter,' in the description of the funeral ritual; but though it is clear that a joyful celebration is meant (like the Irish 'wake' or the

¹ i. 92, 4 (where Usas, Goddess of Dawn, is compared to a dancer).

² x. 18, 3. Cf. 29, 2.

old-fashioned feasting in Scotland after a funeral), it is difficult to be certain that actual dancing is here meant. Dancing is, however, often referred to in the Rigveda³ and later. Nrttagīta, 'dance and song,' are mentioned in the Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa4 as found in the sixth world. See also Śailūṣa.

4 i. 42 (Journal of the American Oriental ³ i. 10, 1; 92, 4, etc. See Weber, | Society, 15, 235). Indian Literature, 196 et seq.

Nr-pati, 'lord of men,' in the Rigveda1 and later2 denotes a 'king' or a man of the ruling class (Kṣatriya).

² Av. v. 18, 1. 15; Taittirīya Āraņ-yaka, vi. 3, 3; x. 77, etc. 1 ii. I, I. 7; iv. 20, I; vii. 69, I; x. 44, 2. 3.

Nṛ-medha,1 Nṛ-medhas,2 is the name of a protégé of Agni in the Rigveda,3 where he also appears with Sumedhas in a hymn that Griffith4 with justice declares to be unintelligible. In the Taittirīya Samhitā1 he is an unsuccessful rival of Parucchepa, and in the Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa2 he is an Āngirasa and a seer of Sāmans (Chants).

1 Rv. x. 80, 3; 132, 7; Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 5, 8, 3.

² Pañcavimsa Brāhmana, viii. 8, 21

3 x. 80, 3.

4 x. 132; Griffith, Hymns of the Rigveda, 2, 578, n.

Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 160; Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 61.

Nr-sad, 'sitting among men,' is the name of the father of Kaņva in the Rigveda (x. 31, 11). Cf. Nārṣada.

Nekṣaṇa occurs once in the Atharvaveda, where a 'spit' seems to be meant. In the Rigveda² Niksana occurs, and must have the same sense; Oldenberg³ inclines to think that this word refers to the 'inspection' of food, to see if it is ready (as from ni-īkṣ, 'look into').

¹ ix. 6, 17. Cf. Kauśika Sūtra, ii. 11; lxxxvii. 12; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 540.

² i. 162, 13.

³ Rgveda-Noten, 1, 155.

Nemi denotes in the Rigveda¹ and later² the 'felly' of a chariot wheel. It was required to be of good wood (su-drū),3 and was bent into shape.4 Cf. Ratha.

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1 i. 32, 15; 141, 9; ii. 5, 3; v. 13, 6;
vii. 32, 20; viii. 46, 23; 75, 5, etc.
  <sup>2</sup> Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 4, 2, 15;
Brhadaranyaka Upanisad, ii. 5, 15, etc. 248.
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3 Rv. vii. 32, 20. 4 Rv. viii. 75, 5. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben,

Nestr, the name of one of the chief priests at the Soma sacrifice, occurs in the Rigveda 1 and later. 2 See Rtvij.

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1 i. 15, 3; ii. 5, 5, etc.
  <sup>2</sup> Taittiriya Samhitā, i. 8, 18, 1;
vi. 5, 8, 5. 6; Aicareya Brāhmana,
vi. 3, 10, etc.; Satapatha Brāhmana, 1, 250, 261, 527.
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iii. 8, 2, 1, etc.; Pañcavimsa Brāhmana, xxv. 15, etc.

Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie,

Naicā-śākha is found in one passage of the Rigveda, where Sāyaṇa renders it as 'of low origin,' but elsewhere² he explains it as the name of a place. The former sense is accepted by Grassmann and Ludwig in their versions, and by Zimmer,3 but Hillebrandt⁴ points out that the reference is rather to the 'low-branched' Soma plant. Cf. Kikata and Pramaganda.

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1 vii. 53, 4.
<sup>2</sup> See St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
3 Altindisches Leben. 31.
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4 Vedische Mythologie, 1, 14-18; 2, 241-245, where he opposes Böhtlingk's view that it is a proper name.

Naicu-dāra occurs in the Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa,1 meaning 'composed of the wood of the Nicudara.' What tree is meant by the latter name is unknown.

1 xxi. 4, 13. Cf. Anupada Sūtra, vi. 4.

Naitandhava is mentioned as a place on the Sarasvatī in the Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa 1 and the Sūtras.2

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| Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiii. 29, 31;
<sup>2</sup> Lātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, x. 19, 13; Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xxiv. 6, 23.
1 xxv. 13, 1.
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Nai-dagha is the name of the 'summer' season in the later Samhitās and Brāhmaņas.1 Cf. Rtu and Nidāgha.

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i. 8, 4, 2; Satapatha Brāhmana, i. 4,
1, 16, etc.; naidāghīya, belonging to
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1 Av. ix. 5, 31; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, | the summer, Pancaviņša Brāhmaņa, xxiii. 16, 8, etc.

Nai-dāna is a term applied in the Nirukta¹ to a class of Vedic interpreters. Roth² takes the Naidānas to be 'etymologists,' but Sieg³ thinks they are the same as the Aitihāsikas or 'legendarists.' ⁴

- 1 vi. 9; vii. 12. 2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. But cf. Nirukta, Erläuterungen, 220, 221; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 22, 176.
- 3 Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 29.
- The word seems to mean 'one concerned with the original form' (nidāna).

Nai-dhruvi, 'descendant of Nidhruva,' is the patronymic of Kasyapa in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.¹

1 vi. 4, 33 (Mādhyandina = vi. 5, 3 Kāṇva).

Naimiśi is the epithet of Śitibāhu Aiṣakṛta in the Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa.¹ It is probably to be taken as an indication that Śitibāhu came from the Naimiśa forest.

1 i. 363 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 26, 192).

Naimišīya,¹ Naimiṣīya² denotes the dwellers in the Naimiśa forest. They are mentioned in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā² and the Brāhmaṇas,² being clearly of special sanctity. Hence in the Epic the Mahābhārata is said to have been recited to the Rṣis dwelling in the Naimiṣa forest.³

- ¹ Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa, xxv. 6, 4; Jaiminiya Brāhmaņa, i. 363 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 26, 192).
- ² Kauşītaki Brāhmaņa, xxvi. 5; ³ Weber, xxviii. 4; Chāndogya Upanişad, i. 2, 68, 70, 185.
- 13: Naimişya, Kāthaka Samhitā, x. 6 (*Indische Studien*, 3, 469). The cerebral s seems to be universal later.
- ³ Weber, Indian Literature, 34, 45, 54, 68, 70, 185.

Nair-ukta¹ in the Nirukta² denotes a man who knows the true etymology of words, and explains their meaning accordingly. Yāska's Nirukta is the classic work of this school, and forms a commentary on an earlier Nirukta, the so-called Naighantuka, a glossary consisting of five collections of Vedic words.

² i. 12; vi. 11; xi. 19. 29. 31; xii. 10; xiii. 9.

Cf. Weber, Indian Literature, 26, 85; Indische Studien, 2, 39, n.; Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 10-13; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 2², 165 et seq

^{1 &#}x27;One concerned with etymological explanation' (nir-ukta).

Nai-ṣāda, a 'man of Niṣāda,' is mentioned in the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa (xxv. 15) and the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā (xxx. 8).

Naisidha is the reading in the Satapatha Brāhmaņa (ii. 3, 2, 1. 2) of the epithet of Nada, a king of the south. The later form of the name is Naisadha; the St. Petersburg Dictionary suggests that its original form was Naiḥṣidha.

Nodhas is the name of a poet who is mentioned in the Rigveda, and to whom certain of its hymns are ascribed. In the Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa he is called Kākṣīvata, a descendant of Kakṣīvant. Ludwig regards him as contemporary with the defeat of Purukutsa. He was a Gotama.

1 i. 61, 14; 62, 13; 64, 1, and 124, 4, according to Nirukta, iv. 16.

² Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vi. 18; Rv. i. 58-64 are ascribed to him in the Anukramanī (Index).

³ vii. 10, 10; xxi. 9, 12. *Cf.* Aitareya Brāhmaņa, iv. 27; viii. 12. 17; Av. xv. 2, 4; 4, 4. ⁴ Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 110.
⁵ Rv. i. 62, 13; Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 125. For the controversy as to the meaning of Rv. i. 124, 4. see Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 137. Cf. Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 33.

Nau is the regular word in the Rigveda¹ and later² for a 'boat' or 'ship.' In the great majority of cases the ship was merely a boat for crossing rivers, though no doubt a large boat was needed for crossing many of the broad rivers of the Panjab as well as the Yamunā and Gaṅgā. Often no doubt the Nau was a mere dug-out canoe (dāru).³ It is certainly against the theory⁴ of the existence in Vedic times of an extensive sea trade that there is no mention of any of the parts of a ship, such as masts and sails, except the oar (Aritra). Yet there are some allusions indicating a trade more extensive than that implied by boats used for crossing rivers. The Atharvaveda⁵ compares the ruin of a kingdom where Brahmins are oppressed to the

¹ i. 131, 2; ii. 39, 4; viii. 42, 3; 83, 3, etc.

² Av. ii. 36, 5; v. 19, 8; Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 3, 10, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, x. 19; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iv. 13; vi. 6, 21; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 8, 1. 4; iv. 2, 5, 10, etc.

³ Rv. x. 155, 3.

⁴ Wilson, Rigveda, I, xli. .

⁵ v. 19, 8. Cf. Hopkins, American Journal of Philology, 19, 139. So perhaps the passage, Rv. i. 32, 8, nadam na bhinnam, refers to a ship. See Nada.

sinking of a ship which is leaking (bhinnā); though the language here employed can be made to fit the theory that the ship was only a canoe, it cannot naturally be so interpreted. Moreover, there is mention made in the Rigveda⁶ of men who go to the ocean (Samudra) eager for gain (sanisyavah). It is not altogether satisfactory to restrict such references with Zimmer⁷ to the broad stream of the Indus after the union of that river with the tributaries of the Panjab. In the Rigveda⁸ too it is said that the Aśvins rescued Bhujyu in the ocean with a ship of a hundred oars (śatāritra). It is not easy to refuse to recognize here the existence of larger vessels with many oars used for sea voyages. The Baudhāyana Dharma Sūtra,⁹ at any rate, clearly refers to maritime navigation. See also Samudra.

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6 Rv. i. 56, 2; iv. 55, 6.
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⁹ i. 2, 4; ii. 2, 2. But it is not of very early date.

Cf. Zimmer, op. cit., 255-257.

Nyag-rodha, 'growing downwards,' is the name of the Ficus indica, a tree remarkable for sending down from its branches fibres which take root and form new stems. Though the tree is not mentioned by name in the Rigveda, it appears to have been known, as Pischel¹ has shown from a hymn² in which its characteristics may be recognized. It is frequently mentioned in the Atharvaveda³ and the later literature.⁴ The sacrificial bowls (Camasa) were made of its wood.⁵ It was doubtless of the greatest importance, as in modern times, to the Vedic village. The sister tree, the Asvattha (Ficus religiosa), already occurs in the Rigveda.

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1 Vedische Studien, 1, 113, 114.
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Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 3, 5, 13; xiii. 2, 7, 3; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, vi. 12, 1, etc.

⁵ Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 4, 12, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiii. 13.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 58.

Ny-aṅka in the dual denotes in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā¹ and Brāhmaṇa² some part of the chariot, parallel with Aṅka. The Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa³ has Nyaṅkū, the dual of Nyaṅku.

⁷ Altindisches Leben, 22, 23.

⁸ i. 116, 3 et seq.

² i. 24, 7, where stūpa seems to denote the crest or crown of the tree above the main trunk,

³ iv. 37, 4; v. 5, 5.

⁴ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 30. 31;

¹ i. 7, 7, 2.

² i. 3, 5, 4; ii. 7, 8, 1.

³ i. 7, 5; Lātyāyana Srauta Sūtra, ii. 8. 9.

Nyanku is the name of an animal in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha, or 'horse sacrifice,' in the Yajurveda Samhitās.1 It seems clear that a kind a 'gazelle' is meant, but the commentary on the Taittirīya Samhitā1 suggests 'bear' (rkṣa) as a variant rendering.

1 Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 17, 1; metre nyanku-sārinī, 'with a gazelle's

Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 9; Vāja-saneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 27. 32. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 83. The 5; Nidāna Sūtra, i. 2.

Ny-astikā seems in the Atharvaveda1 to denote a plant of some kind, identified by the scholiast with the Śankhapuspikā (Andropogon aciculatus).

1 vi. 139, 1. Cf. Whitney, Transla- | field, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 539, tion of the Atharvaveda, 385; Bloom- | 540.

Ny-ocani is found in the marriage hymn of the Rigveda (x. 85, 6), where some kind of ornament worn by women seems The commentator Sāyana interprets it as to be meant. 'female slave.'

P.

Pakti denotes a cooked object, probably a kind of 'cake,' in the Samhitas.1 One who cooks food is called Paktr.2

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1 Rv. iv. 24, 5. 7; 25, 6. 7; vi. 29, | xii. 3, 17; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 3,
  <sup>2</sup> Av. x. 9, 7. 11. 25; xi. 1, 17; 4, 17; x. 4, 2, 19.
4; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxi. 59, etc.
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Paktha is the name of a people in the Rigveda,1 where they appear as one of the tribes that opposed2 the Trtsu-Bharatas in the Dāśarājña, or 'battle of the ten kings.' Zimmer 3 compares

¹ vii. 18. 7.

² Roth, Zur Litteratur und Geschichte des Weda, 95, thought that the Pakthas were allies of the Trtsus, but this view

is certainly incorrect. Cf. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 260.

³ Altindisches Leben, 430, 431.

them with the tribe of Πάκτυες and their country Πακτυική, mentioned as in the north-west of India by Herodotus,⁴ and with the modern Pakhthūn in Eastern Afghanistan, holding that they were a northern tribe; this is probable, since the Bharatas seem to have occupied the Madhyadeśa, or 'Middle Land.' In three passages of the Rigveda⁵ a Paktha is referred to as a protégé of the Aśvins. The second connects him with Trasadasyu, whose tribe, the Pūrus, were aided by the Pakthas in their unsuccessful onslaught on Sudās. In the third passage he seems specified as Tūrvāyaṇa, and appears as an opponent of Cyavāna.⁶ Probably, therefore, Paktha in all cases denotes the king of the Paktha people.

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<sup>4</sup> vii. 65 (Πάκτυες); iii. 102 and iv. 44 | <sup>5</sup> viii. 22, 10; 49, 10; x. 61, 1. (Πακτυκή). <sup>6</sup> Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1, 71-77.
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Pakva, 'cooked,' is used substantively as meaning 'cooked food' or 'cooked milk.' The word is also used of 'baked' bricks.³

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1 Rv. vi. 63, 9; Av. vi. 119, 2; 2 Rv. i. 62, 9; 180, 3; ii. 40, 2; xii. 3, 55; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 5, iii. 30, 14; vi. 44, 24, etc. 1, 26; ii. 6, 1, 7, etc.

3 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. 1, 2, 22; vii. 2, 1, 7.
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Pakṣa is, in the Atharvaveda,¹ applied to some part of a house, either the 'side posts,' according to Roth,² Zimmer,³ and Grill,⁴ or 'sides,' as understood by Whitney⁵ and Bloomfield.⁶ The description of the roof (Chadis) in the Atharvaveda³ as catuṣ-pakṣa, 'four-sided,' tells in favour of the second explanation. In the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa⁶ Pakṣa is used of the sides of a chariot. For Pakṣa as the 'half' of a month, see Māsa.

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1 ix. 3, 4.
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² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

³ Altindisches Leben, 153. 4 Hundert Lieder², 188.

⁵ Translation of the Atharvaveda, 526.

⁶ Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 597.

⁷ iii. 7, 3.

⁸ i. 5, 12, 5.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 17, 210.

Pakṣas is found in the Atharvaveda¹ and the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa² meaning the 'sides'³ of a chariot. In the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā⁴ and the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa⁵ it is used of the sides of a hut or chamber (Śālā). In the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā⁶ it means the 'wing' of a door. In the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa² the 'half' of an army is so named, and in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa³ it means the 'half' of a month, or 'fortnight.' Cf. Pakṣa.

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1 viii, 8, 22.
2 vii. 7.
3 Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 506; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 117.
4 xxx. 5.
5 i. 2, 3, 1.
6 xxix. 5.
7 ii. 9.
8 xxiii. 6, 6.
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Pakṣin in the Rigveda¹ and later² denotes a 'winged' creature, more particularly a 'bird.'

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<sup>1</sup> i. 48, 5; 182, 5; x. 127, 5, etc.

<sup>2</sup> Av. iv. 34, 4; xi. 5, 21; xii. 1, 51;  

xiii. 2, 33; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxxiv. 8;  

Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iv. 23; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 5, 18, etc.
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Pankti, originally a 'set of five,' denotes as early as the Rigveda¹ a 'series' generally. In the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka² the word is used of the series of a man's ancestors whom he purifies by certain conduct.

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1 x, 117, 8, as taken by the St. Petersburg Dictionary. 2 x. 38, 39.
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Pacata, like Pakti, denotes 'cooked food' in the Rigveda¹ and later.²

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1 i. 61, 7; x. 116, 8. | xxiii. 13; Kauşītaki Brāhmaņa, viii. 21, 2 Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxi. 60; etc.
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Pacana in the Rigveda¹ and the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa² denotes a 'vessel for cooking' food.

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<sup>2</sup> vi. 5, 43, 3, 4; xiv. 1, 2, 21.
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Pajra is the name of the family from which Kakṣīvant sprang (Pajriya). It is mentioned several times in the Rigveda.¹ According to Pischel,² the epithet pṛkṣa-yāma³ applied to them means 'carrying out brilliant sacrificial performances,' which won for them Śrutaratha's generosity. In two passages⁴ Roth⁵ sees a Pajra called Sāman. This is uncertain, but in any case a Pajra seems clearly alluded to. Elsewhere⁶ it is very doubtful whether the word is a proper name at all. In the Śāṭyāyanaⁿ the Pajras are declared to be Aṅgirases.

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<sup>1</sup> i. 117, 10; 122, 7. 8; 126, 4. 5.
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Pajrā occurs once in the Rigveda, where Ludwig² sees in the word the name of the wife of the sacrificer, Pajra, while Roth³ takes it to be an epithet ('stout') of the Soma plant. The sense is thus uncertain.

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1 ix. 82, 14.
2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 110.
3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. pajra.
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Pajriya 'descendant of Pajra,' is the patronymic¹ of Kakṣīvant in the Rigveda.²

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<sup>1</sup> Cf. Tugrya, n. 1. <sup>2</sup> i. 116, 7; 117, 6; 120, 5.
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Pañca-janāḥ, the 'five peoples,' are mentioned under various names in Vedic literature.¹ Who are meant by the five is very uncertain. The Aitareya Brāhmaṇa² explains the five to be gods, men, Gandharvas and Apsarases, snakes, and the Fathers.

1 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 31; iv. 27; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, i. 6, 1, 2; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, v. 6; xxxii. 6; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iv. 2, 9 (pañca-janāḥ as a compound). See also pañca mānuṣāḥ, Rv. viii. 9, 2; mānavāḥ, Av. iii. 21, 5; 24, 3; xii. 1, 15; janāḥ, Rv. iii. 37, 9; 59, 8; vi. 14, 4; viii. 32, 22; ix. 65, 23; 92, 3; x. 45, 6; hṛṣṭayaḥ, ii. 2, 10; iii. 53, 16; iv. 38, 10; x. 60, 4; 119, 6;

Av. iii. 24, 3; kṣitayaḥ, Rv. i. 7, 9; 176, 3; v. 35, 2; vi. 46, 7; vii. 75, 4; 79, 1; carṣaṇyaḥ, Rv. v. 86, 2; vii. 15, 2; ix. 101, 9. See Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 204. Every book of the Rigveda has a mention of the five peoples: one such in ii. and iv.; two in i., v., vi., vii., viii.; three in iii. and ix.; four in x.

² iii. 31.

² Vedische Studien, 1, 97, 98.

³ Rv. i. 127, 8, where Roth (St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.) thinks this compound is probably a proper name.

⁴ Rv. viii. 4, 17; 6, 47.

⁵ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. pajra.

⁶ Rv. i, 190, 5, where the reference is clearly hostile and contemptuous.

⁷ Cited by Sāyaṇa on Rv. i. 51, 4.

Aupamanyava³ held that the four castes (Varna) and the Niṣādas made up the five, and Sāyaṇa4 is of the same opinion. Yāska⁵ thinks that the five are the Gandharvas, fathers, gods, Asuras, and Raksases. No one of these explanations can be regarded as probable. Roth 6 and Geldner 7 think that all the peoples of the earth are meant: just as there are four quarters (Dis), there are peoples at the four quarters (N. E. S. W.), with the Aryan folk in the middle. Zimmer8 opposes this view on the ground that the inclusion of all peoples in one expression is not in harmony with the distinction so often made between Āryan and Dāsa; that neither janāsah, 'men,'9 nor mānuṣāh, 'people,'10 could be used of non-Āryans; that the Soma is referred to as being among the five tribes; 11 that the five tribes are mentioned as on the Sarasvatī,12 and that Indra is pāncajanya,13 'belonging to the five peoples.' He concludes that Āryans alone are meant, and in particular the five tribes of the Anus, Druhyus, Yadus, Turvasas, and Pūrus, who are all mentioned together in one or perhaps two hymns of the Rigveda,14 and four of whom occur in another hymn.15 But he admits that the expression might easily be used more generally later. Hopkins16 has combated Zimmer's view, but his own opinion rests mainly on his theory that there was no people named Turvasa, but only a king of the Yadus called Turvasa. and that theory is not very probable.

Indrah, where the address must be to Aryan men.

¹⁰ Cf. Rv. viii, 9, 2, and i. 52, 9, with viii, 70, 11; x. 28, 8.

11 Rv. ix. 65, 23.

12 Rv. vi. 61, 12 (pañca jātā). Cf. x. 53, 4.

13 v. 32, 11. Agni is 'of the five tribes,' Rv. ix. 66, 20. Atri also is so described, Rv. i. 117, 3.

14 Rv. i. 108, 8. In vii. 18, cited by Zimmer, 122, the five tribes do not occur eo nomine, for Yakşu replaces Yadu. But it is probable that Yadu is meant by Yakşu.

15 Rv. viii. 10, 5.

¹⁶ Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 260.

³ In Yāska, Nirukta, iii. 8.

⁴ On Rv. i. 7, 9, etc.

⁵ Nirukta, loc. cit.

⁶ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. kṛṣṭi; Nirukta, Erläuterungen, 28. For his view, Av. iii, 24, 3, can be cited: ραῦτα pradiso mānavīḥ ραῦτα kṛṣṭayaḥ, 'the five directions, the five races of men.'

⁷ Siebenzig Lieder, 18. See, however, Rgveda, Glossar, 103, where he recognizes the use of the phrase to denote five tribes, as well as all mankind.

⁸ Altindisches Leben, 119-123. His view is accepted by Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 153; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 12, 179, is doubtful.

⁹ Cf. its use in Rv. ii. 12, sa janāsa

In the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹⁷ and the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa¹⁸ the five peoples are opposed to the Bharatas, and in the former work¹⁹ seven peoples are alluded to.

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17 xiii. 5, 4, 14.
18 viii. 23.
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peoples are identical with the Pañcālas, and the seven mentioned in Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 5, 4, 23, with the Kuru-Pañcālas.

Pañca-daśī, 'the fifteenth day of the month,' is already mentioned in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa (i. 5, 10, 5).

Pañca-nada, 'having five streams,' is not found until the epic period as the name of the Panjāb, which has no designation in the earlier literature. The importance of the Panjāb as the home¹ of the Rigveda has been greatly diminished by recent research, Hopkins,² Pischel,³ and Geldner⁴ having on different grounds shown reason for believing that the Rigveda, at least in great part, was composed farther east, in the Madhyadeśa, which admittedly was the home of the later Vedic culture. Hillebrandt⁵ considers that the Rigveda belongs in part to the Panjāb, or rather to Arachosia, and in part to the Middle Country. See also Kuru, Tṛtsu.

Pancavimsa Brāhmaņa. See Tāndya.

Pañcāla is the later name¹ of the people called Krivi in the Rigveda. The Pañcālas are rarely referred to except in connexion with the Kurus, and the kings of the Kuru-Pañcālas are mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.² In the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā³ the Pañcālas appear as the people of Keśin Dālbhya.

¹⁹ It is a conjecture of Weber's, Brāhmaṇa, xiii Indische Studien, 1, 202, that the five Kuru-Pañcālas.

¹ See, e.g., Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 32 et seq.

² Journai of the American Oriental Society, 19, 19-28. Cf. Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 145, 441.

³ Vedische Studien, 2, 218.

⁴ Ibid., 3, 152.

⁶ Vedische Mythologie, 1, 98 et seq. But see Divodasa. Cf. also Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 189.

¹ Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 5, 4, 7. ² viii. 14. ³ xxx. 2 (Indische Studien, 3, 471).

In the Upanisads and later4 the Brahmins of the Pañcālas figure as taking part in philosophical and philological discussions. The Samhitopanisad Brāhmaņa⁵ makes mention of the Prācya-Pāñcālas.

The Pañcālas, no doubt, included other tribes besides the Krivis. The name seems to refer to five tribes, and it has been suggested6 that the Pañcālas represent the five tribes of the Rigveda, but the suggestion is not very probable. There is no trace in Vedic literature of the Epic division of the Pañcālas into northern (uttara) and southern (dakṣiṇa). The Satapatha Brāhmaņa mentions their town Paricakrā; other towns to which allusion seems to be made were Kampila and Kauśāmbī.8 Of their kings and chiefs, as distinguished from kings of the Kuru-Pañcālas, we hear of Kraivya, Durmukha, Pravāhana Jaivali, and Sona.

Pañcāla-canda is the name of a teacher in the Aitareya¹ and the Śānkhāyana2 Āranyakas.

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Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 391;
1 iii. 1. 6.
2 vii. 18.
                               Indian Literature, 50, 315, 326.
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Pañcāvi occurs several times in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā1 in the sense of 'aged five lamb-periods' (of six months), that is, 'thirty months old.'2

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2 Cf. Tryavi.
1 xviii. 26; xxi. 14; xxiv. 12; xxviii. 26.
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Pañcaudana is an adjective in the Atharvaveda¹ meaning 'prepared with five rice-messes.' The cooking of five rice dishes is referred to in the same Samhitā.2

⁽Mādhyamdina = vi. 2, 1 Kānva); Chandogya Upanisad, v. 3, 1; Rgveda Prātiśākhya, ii. 12, 44; Nidāna Sūtra, i. 6; Sānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xii. 13,

^{5 2.} Cf. Indische Studien, 4, 375, n.; 8, 92, n. I.

⁴ Brhadaranyaka Upanisad, vi. 1, 1 1 6 Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 202; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 3, 108, n. 1. Cf. Weber, op. cit., 1, 191 et seq.; Indian Literature, 10, 90, 114, 115, 125, 135, 136.

⁷ xiii. 5, 4, 7.

⁸ See Kauśāmbeya.

Paţala as early as the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa¹ denotes 'section' of a work, a sense occurring in the Sūtras² and later.

1 i. 21. 22. ² Śāṅkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xi. 9, | 20; xiii. 21, 2; Āśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iv. 6. 7.

Patharvan appears to be the name of a man in the Rigveda.¹ According to Ludwig,² however, the word is Patharu, and is the name of a fort which was saved by a rain-storm from being set on fire.

1 i. 112, 17, with Sāyaṇa's note. | Cf. Griffith, Hymns of the Rigveda, 1, 2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 204. | 147, 148.

Padgrbhi, 'seizing by the foot,' is the name in the Rigveda² of either a man³ or a demon. See also Padbīśa.

¹ But it may mean 'seizing with a cord.' Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, p. 34 (top); Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1, 236.

² x. 49. 5. ³ Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 165.

Paḍ-bīśa, the 'foot-fetter' of a horse in five passages, two in the Rigveda,¹ and one each in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad,² the Chāndogya Upaniṣad,³ and the Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka.⁴ Elsewhere⁵ its uses are metaphorical. According to Roth,⁶ the literal sense is 'foot-fastening' (paḍ being = pad, 'foot,' and bīśa, written vīśa in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, being connected with the Latin vincire, 'bind'). Pischel¹ objects that the sense of 'foot-fastening' involves the absurdity, in the Upaniṣad passages, of a fine horse from the Sindhu (Indus) being spoken of as tearing up the peg to which it is fastened. He suggests instead the meaning of 'hobble,' which must be right.⁵

¹ i. 162, 14. 16 = Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 6, 9, 1. 2; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxv. 38. 39.

v. 38. 39. ² vi. 2, 13 (Mādhyaṃdina).

⁸ v. 1, 12.

⁴ ix. 7; Keith, Śānkhāyana Āraņyaka, 57, n. 3.

⁵ Rv. x. 97, 16; Av. viii. 1, 4; xii. 5, 15; xvi. 8, 27; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 6, 10, 3; Mantra Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 10.

⁶ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

⁷ Vedische Studien, 1, 233-236.

⁸ He explains the first part of the word as derived from pas, 'tie.' Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, p. 34 (top). But the form pad may be due to a false analogy, and the sense of 'footfastener' may express 'hobble' quite satisfactorily; it is not confined to a rope tied to a peg in the ground.

Pana, with Pratipana, is found in a hymn of the Atharvaveda denoting the process of bargaining and selling. The root pan, from which the word is derived, is employed in the later Samhitās and the Brāhmanas, while Panana in the Satapatha Brāhmana denotes 'trafficking.' Cf. Vanij.

¹ iii. 15, 4. 6 (in the Paippalāda recension; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 112).

² Vājasaneyi Samhitā, viii. 55; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, iii. 3, 3, 1 et seq.; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, i. 27. Cf. Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 1, 10, 1.

³ iii. 3, 2, 19. The root does not occur in the Rigveda, but its etymology is vouched for by the Greek πέρνημ. Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 84, n. 3.

Pani in the Rigveda appears to denote a person who is rich, but who does not give offerings to the gods, or bestow Daksinas on the priests, and who is therefore an object of intense dislike to the composers of the Samhita.1 Hence the gods are asked to attack the Panis, who are also referred to as being defeated with slaughter.2 The Pani is opposed to the pious sacrificer as a niggard,3 and is spoken of as a wolf,4 the symbol of enmity. In some passages⁵ the Panis definitely appear as mythological figures, demons who withhold the cows or waters of heaven, and to whom Saramā goes on a mission from Indra.6 Among the Panis Brbu was apparently important. In one passage of the Rigveda7 they are described as Bekanāţas, or 'usurers' (?). In another8 they are called Dasyus, and styled mrdhra-vāc, probably 'of hostile speech,' and grathin, a word of uncertain meaning. Hillebrandt9 thinks that the latter epithet refers to the continuous flow of a speech which

¹ Rv. i. 33, 3; 83, 2; 151, 9; 180, 7; iv. 28, 7; v. 34, 5-7; 61, 8; vi. 13, 3; 53, 3; viii. 64, 2; 97, 2; x. 60, 6; Av. v. 11, 7; xx. 128, 4; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxxv. 1.

² Rv. 1, 83, 4; 184, 2; iii. 58, 2; v. 34, 7; 61, 8; vi. 13, 3; 20, 4; 33, 2; viii. 64, 11.

³ Rv. i. 124, 10; iv. 51, 3; viii. 45, 14 (where the sense is doubtful). Cf. i. 93, 4; v. 61, 1.

⁴ Rv. vi. 51, 14,

⁵ Rv. i. 32, 11; ii. 24, 6; iv. 58, 4; vi. 44, 22; vii. 9, 2; x. 67, 6; 92, 3; Av. iv. 23, 5; xix. 46, 2; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xiii. 8, 2, 3. It is impossible definitely to decide in which passages the mythical sense is meant. Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 157.

⁶ Rv. x. 108.

⁷ Rv. viii. 66, 10.

⁸ Rv. vii. 6, 3.

⁹ Vedische Mythologie, 1, 89.

is not understood, and that mṛdhra-vāc means 'speaking an enemy's speech,' though not necessarily with reference to non-Āryans. 10 In two passages 11 the Panis appear as Dāsas, and in one 12 a Paṇi is mentioned in connexion with wergeld (Vaira), being apparently regarded as equal to a man merely in the price put on his life, but in other respects as inferior.

It is difficult to be certain exactly who a Pani was. Roth 18 thinks that the word is derived from pan, 'barter,' and that the Pani is properly the man who will give nothing without return, hence the niggard, who neither worships the gods nor rewards their priests. This view is accepted by Zimmer 14 and by Ludwig.15 The latter scholar thinks the apparent references to fights with Panis are to be explained by their having been aboriginal traders who went in caravans—as in Arabia and Northern Africa-prepared to fight, if need be, to protect their goods against attacks which the Aryans would naturally deem quite justified. He supports this explanation by the references to the Panis as Dasyus and Dasas. It is, however, hardly necessary to do more than regard the Panis generally as non-worshippers of the gods favoured by the singers; the term is wide enough to cover either the aborigines or hostile Āryan tribes, as well as demons. Hillebrandt, 16 however, thinks that a real tribe is meant, the Parnians of Strabo, and that they were associated with the Dahae (Dāsa). Moreover, he finds them associated in one passage 17 with the Pārāvatas, whom

13 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. Cf. Yāska, Nirukta, ii. 17; vi. 26.

Nee Satapatha Brāhmaņa, iii. 2, 1, 23; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 2², 114; Davidson, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 37, 23; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 26, 31, n. 3.

¹¹ Rv. v. 34, 5-7; Av. v. 11, 6.

¹² Rv. v. 61, 8. Cf. Roth, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 41, 673; Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 361, who thinks that the Pani is compared unfavourably with a generous woman, but this is unlikely; Hillebrandt, 1, 92, n. 3;

Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 58, 59 Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 364.

¹⁴ Altindisches Leben, 257. Cf. Macdonell, loc. cit.; Geldner, Rgveda, Glossar, 103.

^{Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 213-215. Cf. Bergaigne, Religion Védique, 2, 319.}

¹⁶ Vedische Mythologie, 1, 83 et seq.; 3, 268; Göttingische Gelehrte Anzeigen, 1894, 648.

¹⁷ Rv. vi. 61, 1-3.

he identifies with the Παρουήται of Ptolemy, 18 and with Bṛṣaya, whom he connects with Βαρσαέντης of Arrian;19 he also considers that the frequent 20 mention of the Panis as opponents of Divodasa shows that the latter was on the Arachosian Haraqaiti (Sarasvatī) fighting against the Parnians and Dahae, as well as other Iranian tribes. But the identification of Paņi and the Parnians is needless, especially as the root pan, which is found also in the Greek πέρνημι, shows a satisfactory derivation, while the transfer of Divodasa to the Haraqaiti is improbable. See also Divodāsa and Bekanāta.

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18 vi. 20, 3.
19 iii. 8, 4.
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twice in v. and ix.; thrice in iv. and vii.; six times in viii.; nine times in i.; 20 The Panis occur twelve times in | and four times in x., besides the refer-Mandala vi.; once each in ii. and viii.; ences in the Saramā hymn, x. 108.

Pandita, a 'learned man,' is not found until the Upanisad period.1

¹ Brhadāraņyaka Upanişad, iii. 4, 1; | vi. 14, 2; Muņdaka Upanişad, i. 2, 8, vi. 4, 16. 17; Chandogya Upanisad, etc.

I. Patanga, 'flying,' denotes a 'winged insect' in the Atharvaveda¹ and the Upanisads.²

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1 vi. 50, 1.
  <sup>2</sup> Brhadāraņyaka Upanişad, vi. 1, 19
(Mādhyamdina = vi. 2, 14 Kānva);
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2, 14 (=1, 14); Chāndogya Upanisad,

vi. 9, 3; 10, 2; vii. 2, 1; 7, 1; 8, 1; 10, 1: Adbhuta Brahmana, vi. 5 (Indische Studien, 1, 40).

2. Patanga Prājāpatya ('descendant of Prajāpati') is credited by the Anukramani (Index) with the authorship of a hymn of the Rigveda1 in which Patanga means the 'sun-bird.' He is also mentioned in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmana.2

xxv. 8; Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra. 1 x. 177, I. ² iii. 30, 1. Cf. Kauşitaki Brāhmaņa, xi. 14, 28.

Patancala Kāpya is the name of a sage mentioned twice in the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad.1 According to Weber,2 his

¹ iii. 3, I; 7, I.

² Indische Studien, 1, 434, 435; Indian Literature, 126, 137, 223, 236, 237.

name is reminiscent of Kapila and Patañjali of the Śāńkhya-Yoga system, but this suggestion may be regarded as quite improbable.3

3 Cf. Garbe, Sānkhya Philosophie, 25, 26.

Patatrin denotes a 'flying creature' generally in the Aitareya Upaniṣad,1 or more particularly a 'bird' in the Atharvaveda.2

> 2 viii. 7, 24; x. 10, 14; xiv. 2, 44. 1 iii. 3, 3.

Patākā, 'banner,' is not found until the Adbhuta Brāhmaṇa.1 Its Vedic equivalent is Dhvaja.

1 Indische Studien, 1, 39, 41 (here erroneously mentioned as patāka, masculine).

Pati, Patnī.—Under these words denoting primarily, as the evidence collected in the St. Petersburg Dictionary shows, 'lord' and 'lady,' and so 'husband' and 'wife,' it is convenient to consider the marital relations of the Vedic community.

Child Marriage. - Marriage in the early Vedic texts appears essentially as a union of two persons of full development. This is shown by the numerous references1 to unmarried girls who grow old in the house of their fathers (amā-jur), and who adorn themselves in desire of marriage, as well as to the paraphernalia of spells and potions used in the Atharvavedic tradition² to compel the love of man or woman respectively, while even the Rigveda³ itself seems to present us with a spell by which a

1 Cf. Rv. i. 117, 7; ii. 17, 7; x. 39, 3; 40, 5. Ghosā is the chief example of this condition. The Atharvaveda (i. 14) also refers to such a case (see Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 253). The ornaments of maidens, especially at seasons of festival, are referred to in Rv. i. 123, 11; vii. 2, 5; Av. ii. 36, 1; xiv. 2, 59 et seq.

² Cf. Av. iii. 18 (= Rv. x. 145); vi. 89; 102; 130; 131; vii. 36; 37; 38. Similarly there are many references to the love of the youth for the maiden, and his seeking her-e.g., Rv. i. 115, 2; Av. ii. 30; iii. 25; vi. 8; 9; 82; to their mutual affection-e.g., Rv. i. 167, 3; ix. 32, 5; 56, 3; x. 34, 5; and to jealousy and love philtres for the purpose of recalling wandering affections -e.g., Av. vi. 18; 42; 43; 94; 139; vii. 45. The gifts of the lover are referred to in Rv. i. 117, 18. Some of these passages may, of course, refer to Hetairai, but not all.

3 vii. 55, 5. 8. Cf. Rv. i. 134, 3; Aufrecht, Indische Studien, 4, 337 et seq. A different view of the passage is taken by Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 57 et seq. The Atharvaveda (iv. 5) shows that the view of Aufrecht was that early adopted in India.

lover seeks to send all the household to sleep when he visits his beloved. Child wives first occur regularly in the Sūtra period, though it is still uncertain to what extent the rule of marriage before puberty there obtained.⁴ The marriage ritual also quite clearly presumes that the marriage is a real and not a nominal one: an essential feature is the taking of the bride to her husband's home, and the ensuing cohabitation.⁵

Limitations on Marriage.-It is difficult to say with certainty within what limits marriage was allowed. The dialogue of Yama and Yamī in the Rigveda seems clearly to point to a prohibition of the marriage of brother and sister. It can hardly be said, as Weber 7 thinks, to point to a practice that was once in use and later became antiquated. In the Gobhila Grhya Sūtra8 and the Dharma Sūtras9 are found prohibitions against marriage in the Gotra ('family') or within six degrees on the mother's or father's side, but in the Satapatha Brāhmana 10 marriage is allowed in the third or fourth generation, the former being allowed, according to Harisvamin, 11 by the Kānvas, and the second by the Saurastras, while the Dāksinātyas allowed marriage with the daughter of the mother's brother or the son of the father's sister, but presumably not with the daughter of the mother's sister or the son of the father's brother. The prohibition of marriage within the Gotra cannot then have existed, 12 though naturally marriages

⁴ Cf. Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 59; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 340 et seq.; 23, 356; Risley, People of India, 179 et seq. There is a possible reference to a child-wife in the Chandogya Upanisad, i. 10, 1. For the Sutra evidence, see Bhandarkar, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 47, 143-156; Jolly, ibid, 46, 413-426; 47, 610-615.

⁸ Rv. x. 85, especially verse 29 et seq.

⁶ x. 10.

⁷ Proceedings of the Berlin Academy, 1895, 822. Cf. also Indische Studien, 5, 427; 10, 76, n.; Pischel, Hermes, 18, 465-468; Max Müller, Science of Language, 2, 507; Herodotus, iii. 19. Crawley's Mystic Rose gives strong reasons

against the early prevalence of such marriages.

⁸ iii. 4, 5.

⁹ Apastamba Dharma Sūtra, ii. 5, 15, 16, etc. Cf. Mānava Dharma Śāstra, iii. 5; Yājñavalkya Dharma Śāstra, i. 52, 53.

¹⁰ i. 8, 3, 6.

¹¹ On Satapatha Brahmana, loc. cit.

¹² Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 75, 76; Max Müller, Ancient Sanskrit Literature, 387; Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 392; Geiger, Ostiranische Kultur, 246; Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 43, 308-312; Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 62, 63; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 345 et seq.

outside the Gotra were frequent.¹³ Similarity of caste was also not an essential to marriage, as hypergamy was permitted even by the Dharma Sūtras,¹⁴ so that a Brāhmaṇa could marry wives of any lower caste, a Kṣatriya wives of the two lowest castes as well as of his own caste, a Vaiśya a Śūdrā as well as a Vaiśyā, although the Śūdrā marriages were later disapproved in toto. Instances of such intermarriage are common in the Epic, and are viewed as normal in the Bṛhaddevatā.¹⁵

It was considered proper that the younger brothers and sisters should not anticipate their elders by marrying before them. The later Samhitās and Brāhmaṇas 16 present a series of names expressive of such anticipation, censuring as sinful those who bear them. These terms are the pari-vividāna, 17 or perhaps agre-dadhus, 18 the man who, though a younger brother, marries before his elder brother, the latter being then called the parivitta; 19 the agre-didhiṣu, 20 the man who weds a younger daughter while her elder sister is still unmarried; and the Didhiṣū-pati, 21 who is the husband of the latter. The passages do not explicitly say that the exact order of birth must always be followed, but the mention of the terms shows that the order was often broken.

Widow Remarriage. - The remarriage of a widow was

13 Cf. Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 51, 279.

¹⁴ Gautama Dharma Sūtra, iv. 16; Baudhāyana Dharma Sūtra, i. 16, 2-5; Vasiṣṭha Dharma Sūtra, i. 24; 25; Pāraskara Gṛhya Sūtra, i. 4, etc.; Risley, People of India, 156 et seq. Cf. Varṇa.

¹⁵ See Hopkins, cited in note 12; Brhaddevatā, v. 79; and Varņa.

16 See Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 578 et seq.

¹⁷ Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iv. 1, 9, and Kāthaka and Kapisthala Samhitās, cited by Delbrück, 579, 580; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 9. In Āpastamba Dharma Sūtra, ii. 5, 12, 22, the expression is paryāhita.

18 Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iv. 1, 9, according to Delbrück, 581. But, as

pari-vividāna follows, it seems very doubtful; the reading is probably wrong, especially in view of the Kāṭhaka and Kapiṣṭhala parallels, which have agre-didhiṣau and agre-dadhiṣau.

No. vi. 112, 3; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 8, 11. Āpastamba Śrauta Sūtra, ix. 12, 11, and Dharma Sūtra, ii. 5, 12, 22, add parivinna to parivitta, but probably the two words should be identical in sense.

²⁰ Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā (see note 17) has agre-didhiṣu; Kapiṣṭhala, agre-dadhiṣu; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 8, 11, agra-didhiṣu. The Dharma Sūtras adopt agre-didhiṣu.

²¹ Kāṭhaka Samhitā has didhiṣū-pati; Kapiṣṭhala, dadhiṣū-pati; and so the Dharma Sūtras. Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 9, has the corrupt edidhiṣuḥ-pati. apparently permitted. This seems originally to have taken the form of the marriage of the widow to the brother or other nearest kinsman of the dead man in order to produce children. At any rate, the ceremony is apparently alluded to in a funeral hymn of the Rigveda;22 for the alternative explanation, which sees in the verse a reference to the ritual of the Purusamedha ('human sacrifice'), although accepted by Hillebrandt²³ and Delbrück,24 is not at all probable, while the ordinary view is supported by the Sūtra evidence.25 Moreover, another passage of the Rigveda 26 clearly refers to the marriage of the widow and the husband's brother (devr), which constitutes what the Indians later knew as Niyoga.27 This custom was probably not followed except in cases where no son was already born. This custom was hardly remarriage in the strict sense, since the brother might-so far as appears-be already married himself. In the Atharvaveda,28 a verse refers to a charm which would secure the reunion, in the next world, of a wife and her second husband. Though, as Delbrück²⁹ thinks, this very possibly refers to a case in which the first husband was still alive. 30 but was impotent or had lost caste (patita), 31 still it is certain that the later Dharma Sūtras 32 began to recognize ordinary remarriage in case of the death of the first husband.

²² x. 18, 8.

²³ Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 40, 708.

²⁴ Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 553. Cf. also Lanman, Sanskrit Reader, 385; for the other view, see Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 848; Roth, Siebenzig Lieder, 151, n.; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 329.

²⁵ Aśvalāyana Grhya Sūtra, iv. 2, 18. Cf. Lanman in Whitney, op. cit., 849.

²⁶ x. 40, 2

²⁷ Cf. Yāska, Nirukta, iii. 15, with Roth's note; Geldner, Rgveda, Kommentar, 160; Weber, Indische Studien, v. 343, n.; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 355, n., 367; Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 71; Muir,

Sanskrit Texts, 5, 459; von Schroeder, Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 429. The custom died out in later times, it seems.

²⁸ ix. 5, 27. 28.

²⁹ Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 553-555. Cf. Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 59; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 371, n.

³⁰ This is certainly the case in Av. v. 17, 8, which, however, merely exalts the sanctity of the Brāhmaṇa, and does not necessarily imply remarriage at all.

³¹ E.g., Baudhāyana Dharma Sūtra, ii. 2, 3, 27.

³² Vasisiha Dharma Sūtra, xvii. 19.
20. 72. 74; Baudhāyana Dharma Sūtra,
iv. 1, 16; Mānava Dharma Śāstra,
ix. 175. Cf. also Muir, Sanskrit Texts,
12, 281; 5, 306.

Pischel³³ finds some evidence in the Rigveda³⁴ to the effect that a woman could remarry if her husband disappeared and could not be found or heard of.

Polygamy.—A Vedic Indian could have more than one wife. This is proved clearly by many passages in the Rigveda; ³⁵ Manu, according to the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, ³⁶ had ten wives; and the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa ³⁷ explains polygamy by a characteristic legend. Moreover, the king regularly has four wives attributed to him, the Mahiṣī, ³⁸ the Parivṛktī, ³⁹ the Vāvātā, ⁴⁰ and the Pālāgalī. ⁴¹ The Mahiṣī appears to be the chief wife, being the first one married according to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa. ⁴² The Parivṛktī, 'the neglectĕd,' is explained by Weber ⁴³ and Pischel ⁴⁴ as one that has had no son. The Vāvātā is 'the favourite,' while the Pālāgalī is, according to Weber, the daughter of the last of the court officials. The names are curious, and not very intelligible, but the evidence points to the wife first wedded alone being a wife in the fuliest sense. This view is supported by the fact emphasized by

³³ Vedische Studien, 1, 27.

³⁴ vi. 49,8. Cf. Mahābhārata, iii. 70, 26. ³⁵ Rv. i. 62, 11; 71, 1; 104, 3; 105, 8; 112, 19; 186, 7; vi. 53, 4; vii. 18, 2; 26, 3; x. 43, 1; 101, 11. Cf. Av. iii. 4; Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 5, 1, 4, etc. See Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 5, 455 et seq.; Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 387; Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 64; von Schroeder, Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 430, 431; Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 539, 540; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 353; Bloomfield, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 561.

³⁶ i. 5, 8. ³⁷ ix. 1, 4, 6.

³⁸ Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 9, 4, 4; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 3, 1, 4; vi. 5, 3, 1; vii. 5, 1, 1; xiii. 2, 6, 4; 4, 1, 8; 5, 2, 2. 5, 9; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xix. 1, 4, Cf. Rv. v. 2, 2; 37, 3; Av. ii. 36, 3; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, i. 8, 9, 1; Weber, Indische Studien, 5, 220.

⁸⁹ Pari-vṛktā occurs in Rv. x. 102, 11; Av. vii. 113, 2; xx. 128, 10. 11; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xiii. 2, 6, 6; 4, 1, 8; 5, 2, 7; parivṛktī in Taittirīya Saṃhitā, i. 8, 9, 1; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 3, 4; iii. 9, 4, 4; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, x. 10; xv. 4; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 3, 1, 13.

⁴⁰ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 22; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 3, 3; iii. 9, 4, 4; Av. xx. 128, 10. 11; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 2, 6, 5; 4, 1, 8; 5, 2, 6. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 5, 308, n.; Bloomfield, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgentändischen Gesellschaft, 48, 553, 554.

⁴¹ Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 7, 3, 3 et seq.; iii. 9, 4, 5; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, xiii. 4, 1, 8; Śāńkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 4, 4.

⁴² vi. 5, 3, 1.

⁴³ Indische Studien, 10, 6.

⁴⁴ Vedische Studien, 2, 199. Cf. Geldner, ibid., 2, 38.

Delbrück,45 that in the sacrifice the Patni is usually mentioned in the singular, apparent exceptions being due to some mythological reason.46 Zimmer 47 is of opinion that polygamy is dying out in the Rigvedic period, monogamy being developed from pologamy; Weber,48 however, thinks that polygamy is secondary, a view that is supported by more recent anthropology.49

Polyandry.—On the other hand, polyandry is not Vedic.50 There is no passage containing any clear reference to such a custom. The most that can be said is that in the Rigyeda 51 and the Atharvaveda⁵² verses are occasionally found in which husbands are mentioned in relation to a single wife. It is difficult to be certain of the correct explanation of each separate instance of this mode of expression; but even if Weber's 53 view, that the plural is here used majestatis causā, is not accepted, Delbrück's 54 explanation by mythology is probably right. In other passages 55 the plural is simply generic.

Marital Relations.—Despite polygamy, however, there is ample evidence that the marriage tie was not, as Weber⁵⁶ has suggested, lightly regarded as far as the fidelity of the wife was concerned. There is, however, little trace of the husband's being expected to be faithful as a matter of morality. Several

45 Indogermanische Verwandtschaftsnamen, 539. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 325. Yājnavalkya had, however, two apparently equal wives (Brhadāranyaka Upanisad, iii. 1, and cf. Taittirīva Brāhmana, i. 3, 10, 3).

46 E.g., Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 5, 6, 4; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 3, 1.

47 Altindisches Leben, 323.

- 43 Indische Studien, 5, 222. Weber's theory that sapatna cannot be derived from sapatnī is, however, quite untenable.
- 49 See, e.g., Westermaarck, Origin and Development of Marriage; Crawley, Mystic
- 50 Mayr, Indisches Erbrecht, Wien, 1873, contends in favour of its existence. But see Weber, Indische Studien, 5, 191, 207; 10, 83, 84; Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 48; Hopkins, Journal of the

American Oriental Society, 13, 354 et seq.; von Schroeder, Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 431, n. 2; Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 44. 340-342; Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 541-545.

51 x. 85, 37. 38.

- 52 Av. xiv. 1, 44. 52. 61; 2, 14. 27.
- 53 Indische Studien, 5, 191. So Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 326, who, however, suggests that the plural is generic.

54 Op. cit., 543.

55 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, ii. 6, 2, 14. Cf. the plural śvaśurāh, 'fathers-in-law,' in Kāthaka Samhitā, xii. 12. The Niyoga has, of course, nothing to do with polyandry.

56 Indische Studien, 10, 83. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 5, 573.

and cf. Dharma.

passages,57 indeed, forbid, with reference to ritual abstinence, intercourse with the strī of another. This may imply that adultery on the husband's part was otherwise regarded as venial. But as the word strī includes all the 'womenfolk.' daughters and slaves, as well as wife, the conclusion can hardly be drawn that intercourse with another man's 'wife' was normally regarded with indifference.58 The curious ritual of the Varunapraghāsās,50 in which the wife of the sacrificer is questioned as to her lovers, is shown by Delbrück⁶⁰ to be a part of a rite meant to expiate unchastity on the part of a wife. not as a normal question for a sacrificer to put to his own wife. Again, Yāiñavalkva's doctrine in the Satapatha Brāhmana,61 which seems to assert that no one cares if a wife is unchaste (parah-pumsā) or not, really means that no one cares if the wife is away from the men who are sacrificing, as the wives of the gods are apart from them during the particular rite in question. Monogamy is also evidently approved,62 so that some higher idea of morality was in course of formation. On the other hand, no Vedic text gives us the rule well known to other Indo Germanic 63 peoples that the adulterer taken in the act can be killed with impunity, though the later legal literature has traces of this rule.64 There is also abundant evidence that the standard of ordinary sexual morality was not high.

Hetairai.—In the Rigveda 65 there are many references to illegitimate love and to the abandonment of the offspring of

58 Cf. above, p. 396.

" Op. cit., 550.

the theory of doubt as to the parentage of the Vedic Indians.

62 Rv. i. 124, 7; iv. 3, 2; x. 71, 4, tc.

64 Cf. above, p. 396.

⁵⁷ Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 6, 8, 3; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 4, 7.

⁵⁹ Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, i. 10, 11; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, ii. 5, 2, 20; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 6, 5, 2.

⁶¹ i. 3, I, 2I. Cf. Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, 76, n. 2; Böhtlingk, Dictionary, s.v. parahpumsā (cf. above, p. 397). Delbrück, op. cit., 55I, shows also that neither the Dīkṣā ('consecration') nor the Pravara ('invitation' to Agni, as described by the names of the mythical ancestors of the invoker) gives any countenance to

et seq. Cf. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 388, 389; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 366, 367.

⁶⁵ Rv. i. 134, 3; iii. 53, 8; viii. 17, 7. Mahānagnī, Av. xiv. 1, 36; xx. 136, 5; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, i. 27, denotes a courtesan. Cf. Av. v. 7, 8. So also puṃścalī, Av. xv. 2; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 22; puṃścalū, Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 15, 1.

such unions,66 especially in the case of a protégé of Indra, often mentioned as the paravrkta or paravrj.67 The 'son of a maiden' (kumārī-putra) is already spoken of in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā.68 Such a person appears with a metronymic in the Upanisad period:69 this custom may be the origin of metronymics such as those which make up a great part of the lists of teachers (Vamsas) of the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad.70 The Vājasaneyi Samhitā 71 refers to illicit unions of Śūdra and Ārya, both male and female, besides giving in its list of victims at the Purusamedha, or 'human sacrifice,' several whose designations apparently mean 'courtesan' (atītvarī)72 and 'procuress of abortion' (atiskadvarī),73 while the 'dyeing woman' (rajayitrī) is dedicated to sensuality.74 Pischel and Geldner also see many references to Hetairai in other passages of the Rigveda,75 especially where mention is made of Usas, the goddess of Dawn, who in their view is the characteristic Hetaira. At any rate, there is little doubt that the 'dancer' (nytū) referred to in one passage of the Rigveda 76 was a Hetaira. When women are referred to as going to the Samana, or 'place of meeting,' Hetairai are probably also meant.77 Grave cases of immorality are alluded to in the Rigveda.78 The love of father and daughter, as shown in the myth of Prajāpati,79 is evidently censured, but the actual existence of this form of incest is recognized in the Atharvaveda.80 Girls who had lost their

66 Rv. ii. 29, I (raha-sūḥ, 'one who bears in secret.' Cf. Max Müller, Ancient Sanskrit Literature, 26; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 333, 334).

67 Rv. ii. 13, 12; 15, 7; iv. 19, 9; 30, 16; Zimmer, op. cit., 335. The child, when exposed, was in danger of being consumed by ants (vamri). Cf. below, p. 493.

68 xxx, 6.

69 Cf. Jābāla Satyakāma.

70 Cf. Pāṇini, iv. 1, 116. But the custom may be due simply to polygamy (Keith, Aitareya Āranyaka, p. 244,

71 xxiii. 30. 31; Taittiriya Samhitā,

vii. 4, 19, 2. 3.

72 XXX. 15.

73 XXX. 15; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 11, 1, has apaskadvarī.

74 xxx. 12; Taittiriya Brahmana,

iii. 4, 7, I.

75 Cf. Vedische Studien, I, xxv, 196, 275, 299, 309; 2, 120, 154, 179, etc.; Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 48.

76 i. 92, 4.

77 Rv. iv. 58, 8; vi. 75, 4; x. 168, 2. Perhaps also vrā in i. 124, 8; 126, 5.

78 x. 162, 5 (brother and sister:

cf. above, p. 397).

79 Rv. x. 61, 5-7; Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa, viii. 2, 10; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, iii. 33; Satapatha Brahmana, i. 7, 80 viii. 6, 7. 4. I.

natural protectors—father or brother 81—were apt to be reduced

to live by immorality.

Forms of Marriage.—The state of society revealed in the Vedic age seems to point to considerable freedom on the part of both man and woman in selecting a wife or a husband. At any rate, it is not clear that either the father or the mother controlled the marriage of son or daughter of mature age, 82 though no doubt the parents or parent often arranged a suitable match. 83 The marriage was frequently arranged through an intermediary, the 'wooer' (vara), 84 presumably after those concerned had in effect come to an agreement. The sale of a daughter was not unknown, 85 but a certain amount of discredit would seem to have attached to it, 86 and sons-in-law in such cases were sometimes stingy. On the other hand, dowries were not infrequently given, especially no doubt when damsels affered from bodily defects. 87 Occasionally marriages by

81 Rv. i. 124, 7. Cf. Putrikā.

82 Cf. Delbrück, op. cit., 574. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 309, asserts that the consent of parent or brother was needed, but no clear evidence of this can be adduced. The later custom is not conclusive, since it is bound up with the usage of child marriage, which deprived both son and daughter of any free choice. Cf. ibid., 315; Kaegi, Der Rigveda, 15.

83 This is so natural as not to need express evidence. Cf., e.g., the marriage proposals of Syāvāsva Atreya, as detailed in the Brhaddevatā, v. 49 et seq.; Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgueda, 51 et seq.

84 Rv. x. 78, 4; 85, 15, 23. Zimmer, op. cit., 310, exalts this into a universal practice, and compares the use of aryaman, 'friend,' as 'bride-wooer.' In Syāvāśva's case, his father acted for him.

85 Cf. Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, i. 10, 11; Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 3, 4, 1; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 1, 2, 4; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxxvi. 5. See also Mānava Dharma Śāstra, iii. 53; viii. 204; ix. 98; Megasthenes in McCrindle's translation, p. 70; Weber, Indische Studien, 5, 407; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 345 et seq.;

Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 381; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 78 et seq.; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 3, 86, n.; Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 52.

86 Rv. i. 109, 2, refers to the gods Indra and Agni as more generous than a vijāmātr, 'son-in-law,' or a syāla, 'brother-in-law.' The force of vi in the former word must be unfavourable, and the sense, as indicated by Pischel, is, no doubt, that a son-in-law who was not in other respects altogether suitable might have to buy his bride at a heavy cost. The vijāmātr is, in fact, the aśrīro jāmātā, the 'ignoble son-in-law,' of Rv. viii. 2, 20. Cf. Yāska, Nirukta, vi. 9; Bloomfield, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 255.

87 Cf. Rv. vi. 28, 5; x. 27, 12; Av. v. 17, 12. Possibly in Rv. i. 109, 2, there is a reference to a generous brother giving his sister a dowry in order to get her a husband. Cf. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 345; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 5, 459; Kaegi, Der Rigveda, n. 352; Zimmer, op. cit., 310, n. It is doubtful whether anudeyi in Rv. x. 85, 6, means dowry' or not. See Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 741.

capture may have taken place, but only as knightly feats, as when Vimada carried off Purumitra's daughter against her father's wish, but very possibly with her own consent. The later law-books and the Epic describe in much detail various forms of marriage, but they all seem reducible to three types:

(a) that which is based on mutual consent, the prājāpatya ('connected with Prajāpati'); (b) that in which a price is paid for the bride, the āsura ('Asura-like'), ārṣa ('connected with the Ḥṣis'), brāhma ('relating to Brahman'), or daiva ('divine'); (c) those which consist in stealing the bride, the kṣātra ('warrior-like') or the rākṣāsa ('demon-like') mode, of all of which traces are found in Vedic literature. For instance, the gift of a maiden for services rendered or other object is exemplified in the story of Cyavana in the Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa, on and in that of Syāvāsva in the Bṛhaddevatā.

Wedding Ceremony.—In normal marriages the bridal was celebrated by an elaborate ceremony which bears in essentials and details the strongest resemblance to the form observed by other Indo-Germanic as well as non-Indo-Germanic peoples, 92 and which was destined to secure the stability and fruitfulness of the union. The ceremony commenced at the bride's house, 93 to which the bridegroom with his friends and relations repaired, and in which he met the friends and relations of the bride. 94 A cow or cows were slain for the entertainment of the guests. 95 The bridegroom having caused the bride to mount a stone, formally grasped her hand, and led her round the household

88 Cf. Rv. i. 112, 19; 116, L; 117, 20; x. 39, 7; 65, 12. Sāyaṇa's view that Kamadyū was daughter of Purumitra seems certain, though Zimmer, loc. cit., is doubtful.

89 Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 361, 362; Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 50 et seq.; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1, 29; Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 383.

90 iii. 122.

91 v. 49 et seq.

92 The older ritual is described with considerable detail in Rv. x. 85 and Av. xiv. 1 and 2. The later ritual, as

elaborately traced in the Grhya Sütras, is set out by Weber and Haas, Indische Studien, 5, 177-411. See also Leist, Altarisches Jus Gentium, 144 et seq.; von Schroeder, Die Hochzeitsgebräuche der Esten, Berlin, 1888; Schrader, Prchistoric Antiquities, 384 et seq.; Hopkins, op. cit., 13, 355 et seq.; Winternitz, Das altindische Hochzeitsrituell, 1892; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 739 et seq.; Lanman, Sanskrit Reader, 389 et seq.

93 x. 17, 1.

94 Rv. iv. 58, 9; Av. vi. 60; xiv. 2, 59.

95 Rv. x. 85, 13.

fire.93 This act constituted the marriage, the husband hence being called 'he who takes by the hand' (hasta-grābha).97 The festivities being over,98 the bridegroom took the bride to his home on a car in a marriage procession,99 all to the accompaniment of suitable stanzas. Then followed cohabitation. 100

Wife's Property and Status.—We have very little information as to the legal relations of wife and husband after marriage. It may be assumed that the husband appropriated the wife's dowry, if any, as well as her earnings, if any: even in the Epic 101 the rise of the recognition of women's property as their own (strī-dhana) is only slow. That the husband was absolute master of a wife as of a slave is not probable, though he doubtless exercised the same power of correction as was expressly allowed in the eighteenth century by English law. The poetical ideal 102 of the family was decidedly high, and we have no reason to doubt that it was often actually fulfilled. Moreover, the wife on her marriage was at once given an honoured position in the house: she is emphatically mistress in her husband's home, exercising authority over her fatherin-law, her husband's brothers, and her unmarried sisters. 103 No doubt the case contemplated is one in which the eldest son

96 Cf. Rv. x. 85, 36. 38; Av. xiv. I, 47. 48. Before the bride mounted the stone, the groom repeated, according to the Grhya Sūtras (Āśvalāyana, i. 7, 3; Śānkhāyana, i. 13, 4; Pāraskara, i. 6, 3, etc.), the words, 'I am he, thou art she; I the Saman, thou the Rc; I the heaven, thou the earth; here will we unite ourselves and produce offspring,' for which see Av. xiv. 2, 71; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxxv. 18; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, viii. 27; Brhadāranyaka Upanisad, vi. 4, 19 (Mādhyamdina).

97 x. 18, 8. Cf. Av. xiv. 1, 51.

98 Av. xiv. 2, 59 et seq.

99 Rv. x. 85, 7. 8. 10. 24. 25. 26. 27. 42 et seq. ; Av. xiv. 1, 60.

100 See for the purification of the bride's garment, Rv. x. 85, 28-30. 35.

101 'They own neither themselves nor an inheritance' (nātmanas canesate na dāyasya), says the Satapatha Brāhmaņa, iv. 4. 2. 13. Cf. Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iv. 6, 4; Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 5, 8, 2; Nirukta, iii. 4. Cf. for the Epic, Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 368. For compulsory obedience of the wife, cf. Brhadaranyaka Upanisad, vi. 4, 7. In the same Upanisad Yājñavalkya, on retiring from the ordinary life, divides his goods between his two wives.

102 Rv. viii. 31, 5-9; x. 34, 11; 85, 18. 19. 42 et seq.; Av. iii. 30; xiv. 2,

103 Rv. x. 85, 46. Cf. as regards the bridegroom's sisters, Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 37. In Av. xiv. 2, 26, the daughter-in-law is to be 'wealful' (sambhūh) to her father-in-law, and 'pleasant' (syonā) to her mother-in-law, which is correct on either theory of her position as a daughter or a mistress.

of a family has become its head owing to the decrepitude ¹⁰⁴ of the parents, his wife then taking the place of the mistress of the joint family while the brothers and sisters are still unmarried. It is not inconsistent with the great stress elsewhere ¹⁰⁵ laid on the respect due to a father-in-law, who then is probably regarded as still in full possession of his faculties, and controls the house while his son continues to live with him. The respect would no doubt equally apply if the son had set up a separate family of his own. ¹⁰⁶

Moreover, the wife was a regular participator in the offerings of the husband. In this connexion the term Patni regularly applies to her in the Brāhmaņas,107 where Jāyā designates her in her conjugal capacity, not in that of sharer in the sacrifice. In this respect her position gradually deteriorated: thus the Satapatha Brāhmana 108 describes a certain ceremony in which the wife $(j\bar{a}y\bar{a})$ alone offered the oblation in former times, while later a priest might do so instead. The same Brahmana shows other traces of a lowering in the position of women, probably due to the growing sense of the importance of ceremonial priority. 109 So in the Maitrāyanī Samhitā 110 women generally are classed with dice and drink as three chief evils, and woman is declared to be 'untruth,'111 and connected with Nirrti, 'calamity.' 112 A woman too, according to the Taittirīya Samhita,113 is inferior even to a bad man, and a sarcastic reference is made in the Kāthaka Samhitā114 to her power of

104 Cf. Rv. i. 70, 5, where an old father's goods are divided by his sons, and Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 327. Cf. also the possible case of a father who recovers after giving over all his goods to his son, Kausitaki Upanisad, iv. 15.

105 Av. viii. 6, 24; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, ii. 4, 2; Kāthaka Samhitā, xii. 12 (Indische Studien. 5, 260); Taittiriya Brāhmaņa, ii. 4, 6, 12; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, iii. 22; Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 514, 515.

106 No doubt it might also apply even if the father-in-law were decrepit; but it is hardly likely that, in these circumstances, the strong sense of

respect evident in Av. viii. 6, 24, which implies fear, would have developed.

107 Satapatha Brāhmana, i. 9, 2, 14; Pāṇini, iv. 1, 33; Delbrück, op. cit., 510, 512.

108 i. 1, 4, 13. For the older practice, cf. Rv. i. 122, 2; iii. 53, 4-6; viii. 31, 5 et seq.; x. 86, 10, etc.

109 E.g., i. 3, 1. 9. 12. 13. Cf. Lévi, La doctrine du sacrifice, 157, 158.

110 iii. 6, 3.

111 i. 10, 11.

112 Ibid. 113 vi. 5, 8, 2. Cf. Śatapatha Brāhmana, i. 3, 1, 9

114 XXXI, I. Cf. Aitareya Brāhmaņa,

getting things from her husband by cajolery at nigh. On the other hand must be set the encomia on woman: a woman is half her husband,115 and completes him;116 and in the Rigveda117 attacks on women mingle with the general assumption of their good qualities. None the less, the Brāhmaņas clearly indicate a gradual decline in their position, which is evident from the rule that requires the wife to eat after her husband.118 were also known: the Aitareya Brāhmaņa 119 praises the wife 'who does not answer back' (aprativādinī). Women bore no part in political life: men go to the assembly, not women, the Maitrāyanī Samhitā 120 expressly says. On the other hand, with the advance of education, women shared in the intellectual interests of the day, as is exemplified by Yājñavalkya's121 two wives, of whom one was interested in his philosophical discussions, the other not. Other women are also referred to in the Upanisads as teachers, but whether they were married is not certain.122

But the main object of a woman's marriage was the production of children, this being repeatedly asserted in the Rigveda and later. 123 The desire for offspring, as was natural in a society which mainly counted relationship through the father, took the form of a wish for a son to perform the necessary funeral rites for the father, and to continue his line. It was no doubt possible to adopt a son, but in the Rigveda 124 this custom is plainly viewed as unsatisfactory. The practice

115 Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 2, 1, 10. 116 Brhadāraņyaka Upanişad, i. 4,

117 In viii. 33, 17, Indra is credited with a poor opinion of woman's intelligence, and Purūravas in x. 95, 15, frankly calls them hyenas. They are defended in v. 61, 6-8, but only against mean men (Paṇi). Cf. Kaegi, Der Rigveda, n. 351.

118 Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, i. 9, 2, 12; x. 5, 2, 9. Cf. Vāsistha Dharma Sūtra, xii. 13; Baudhāyana Dharma Sūtra, i. 1, 2, 2; Weber, Indische Studien, 5, 330, n.; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 365, n.

119 iii. 24, 7. Cf. Gopatha Brāh-

mana, ii. 3, 22; Bloomfield, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 19, 14, n. 2.

120 iv. 7, 4. Cf. Av. vii. 38, 4.

¹²¹ Brhadāraņyaka Upaniṣad, iii. 4, 1; iv. 5, 1.

122 Cf. the epithet gandharva-gṛhītā, Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, v. 29; Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa, ii.9; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iii. 3, 1; 7, 1; and see Āśvalāyana Gṛhya Sūtra, iii. 4, 4; Śāṅkhāyana Gṛhya Sūtra, iv. 10.

123 Rv. i. 91, 20; 92, 13; iii. 1, 23; x. 85, 25. 41. 42. 45; Av. iii. 23, 2; v. 25, 11; vi. 11, 2, etc.

124 vii. 4, 7. 8. Cf. Nirukta, iii. 2.

is recognized,¹²⁵ as we have seen above of Niyoga, in the appointment of a brother to beget children with the wife of a dead man, or perhaps of a man who is childless. 'Sonlessness' (avīratā) is placed on the same level as lack of property (amati), and Agni is besought to protect from it.¹²⁶ The birth of a daughter was certainly not specially welcome: the Atharvaveda ¹²⁷ in one hymn distinctly invokes the birth of a son, and deprecates that of a daughter, while the Aitareya Brāhmana ¹²⁸ contains an old verse which says that a daughter is a misery (krpanam), while a son is a light in the highest heaven (jyotir ha putrah parame vyoman). But there is no proof that the Vedic Indians practised the exposure of female children. This conclusion, deduced from certain passages in the later Samhitās ¹²⁹ by Zimmer ¹³⁰ and Delbrück, ¹³¹ has been disproved by Böhtlingk.

Child Life.—No doubt the care of a child was left to the mother, but we learn little from the earlier literature 132 of the life of the young. The length of the period of pregnancy is frequently placed at ten (doubtless lunar) months. 133 On birth the child was first fed with milk or ghee, and then given the breast. 134 On the eighth day after birth

125 x. 18, 8; 40, 2.

126 Rv. iii. 16, 5.

127 vi. 11, 3. Cf. viii. 6, 25.

128 vii. 15. Cf. Max Müller, Ancient Sanskrit Literature, 409.

129 Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 5. 10. 3; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iv. 6, 4; 7. 9; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xxvii. 9; Nirukta, iii. 4; Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 17,

130 Allindisches Leben, 319. Cf. Weber, Naxatra, 2, 314, n., who cites Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa, xi. 8, 8, as evidence of the exposure of two boys, but the sense is doubtful.

131 Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 575. See also Weber, Indische Studien, 5, 54, 210; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 6, 142; Kaegi, Der Rigveda, n. 49; Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 389, 390. Böhtlingk's view is given in Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 44. 494-496, and cf. Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 48, who compares iv. 18, 5.

132 The later literature is full of details of the ceremonies before and after birth (see Delbrück, op. cit., 573 et seq.). Weber, Naxatra, 2, 314, n., gives the Vedic embryology: twins were disliked, Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 9, etc.

133 Rv. v. 78, 9; x. 184, 3; Av. i. 11, 6; iii. 23, 2; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 13, 9; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 5, 2, 4; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 9, 1; Weber, Naxatra, 2, 314, n. There are in the Av. many spells concerned with birth (i. 11, etc.), and miscarriages are mentioned (avatokā, avasū, Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 15; Av. viii. 6, 9, etc.).

134 Bṛhadāranyaka Upanişad, i. 3, 4 (Mādhyamdina = i. 5, 2 Kānva). Cf. also vi. 4, 24 et seq.; Satapatha Brāhmana, ii. 5, 1, 6. After being weaned the child is ati-stana (Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 2).

the infant was washed. The cutting of the teeth was also a solemn occasion, and is the subject of a hymn in the Atharvaveda. Reference is also made to children's learning to speak, which the Taittirīya Saṃhitā ascribes to the end of the first year of life. The Aitareya Āraṇyaka asserts that the words Tata and Tāta, onomatopoetic words like 'dada,' are the first words of a child's speech, giving therein perhaps an unfair prominence to the father. The Atharvaveda further contains at least one hymn for the ceremony of the first shaving of the young man's beard. The giving of a name was also an occasion of importance, a second one being often added. The giving of the sales of the sales of the sales of the second one being often added.

Satī.—On the death of her husband, in some cases the widow burned herself or was burned by his relations. This is clearly implied in the reference to this ancient custom in the Atharvaveda. On the other hand, the Rigveda does not contemplate the custom anywhere, but on the contrary considers the widow as married apparently to the brother of the dead man. The custom of Suttee would therefore appear during the Vedic age to have been in abeyance, at least as a general rule. At all times the practice seems to have been mainly usual among families of the warrior class, to judge from the other Indo-Germanic parallels. In other classes

135 Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa, xiv. 7, 2 (on Sāmaveda, ii. 525 = Rv. ix. 96, 17). The first ten days were the dangerous period (Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vii. 14; Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa, xxii. 14, 3).

136 Av. vi. 140.

137 vi. 1, 6, 7. Cf. Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vii. 4, 2, 38; xi. 1, 6, 3.5.

138 i. 3, 3.

139 Cf. Delbrück, op. cit., 449, 596.

¹⁴⁰ vi. 68. Cf. ii. 13, according to Kausika Sūtra, 53. 54, and cf. Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 4, 1, 6.

141 Cf. Aitareya Āranyaka, i. 3, 3, with Keith's note; Satapatha Brāhmana, vi. 1, 3, 9, and Nāman.

142 Cf. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 391; von Schroeder, Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 41; Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 67-69; Weber, Proceedings of the Berlin Academy, 1896, 254 et seq.; Roth, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 8, 468; Wilson, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 16, 202; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 329; Geldner, Rigveda, Kommentar, 154.

143 Av. xviii. 3, 1.

144 x. 18, 7. 8.

145 Cf. Herodotos, v. 5 (of the Thracians); iv. 71 (of the Scythians); Procopius, De Bello Gothico, ii. 14 (of the Heruli). So in Germany Brynhild and Nanna are instances (cf. Weinhold, Altnordisches Leben, 476 et seq.). The universality of the custom must not be exaggerated, as Zimmer, 331, is inclined to do. To burn all the wives of a king would, in primitive ages, have been a

the survival of wives was more necessary, and the remarriage of widows, whether prohibited or allowed in the texts, is proof that there were widows who could be remarried.146

wasteful action; even the chief wife would often have had to be spared on one ground or another. The Rigveda already reveals a state of society in which the actual burning of the wife was avoided by a semblance of it in the funeral ritual of (cf. Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 126). The reward of a good wife was to go to the world of her husband (pati-loka) after death (cf. Av. xiv. 1, 64; exviii. 3, 1; Rv.

x. 85, 43). A Vedic citation in the scholiast on Pāņini, iii. 2, 8, Vārttika, 2, says that a Brahmin woman who drinks Surā, an intoxicating liquor, does not go to the world of her husband after death.

146 Cf. perhaps the gartaruh of Rv. i. 124, 7, as explained by Yaska, Nirukta, iii. 5; Geldner, Rigveda, Kommentar, 22.

Patti is used in the Atharvaveda (vii. 62, 1) to designate the 'foot soldier' in war as opposed to the Rathin, 'charioteer,' the latter defeating (ji) the former. One of the epithets of Rudra in the Satarudriya liturgy of the Vajasaneyi Samhita (xvi. 19) is 'lord of footmen' (pattīnām pati).

Patnī. See Pati. A part of the house is the Patnīnām Sadana, mentioned in the Atharvaveda,1 presumably the women's quarters. The phrase is borrowed from the Patniśāla, 'hut for the wife,' of the Brāhmaņa2 ritual.

1 ix. 3, 7. ² Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 18; Sata- Kausītaki Brāhmaņa, xix. 6, etc. patha Brāhmana, iv. 6, 9, 8; x. 2,

3, 1; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, v. 22 (-śālā);

Pathin Saubhara ('descendant of Sobhari') is mentioned in the first two Vamsas (lists of teachers) in the Brhadaranyaka Upanişad¹ as the pupil of Ayasya Āṅgirasa.

1 ii. 5, 22 (Mādhyamdina = ii. 6, 3 Kāņva); iv. 5, 28 (Mādhyamdina = iv. 6, 3 Kānva).

Pathi-kṛt, 'path-maker,' is not a rare epithet in the Rigveda1 and later,2 showing clearly the importance naturally attached in primitive times to the finding of roads. The frequency

¹ ii. 23, 6; vi. 21, 12; ix. 106, 5; x. 14, 15; 111, 3, etc.

² Av. xviii. 2, 53; 3, 25, etc.

with which the epithet is applied to Agni³ suggests that there is here an allusion to fire burning the primæval forest and rendering advance possible. The god Pūṣan is pathi-kṛt, as guarding the flocks.⁴ The Rṣis,⁵ or seers, as 'path-makers,' may be compared with the Roman Pontifices.

3 Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 2, 1, 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, xi. 1, 5, 5; xii. 4, 4, 1; Kauşītaki Brāhmaņa, iv. 3, etc.

4 Sānkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, iii. 4, 9; xvi. 1, 17. The Sūtra, xvi. 1, 18, explains pathi-kṛt merely as adhipati, 'lord'; but the sense must be more pregnant than that.

⁵ Rv. x. 14, 15, where the expression refers to their finding the way to the heavenly world; but it is probably a transfer of an epithet of terrestrial application.

Pad in the Atharvaveda (xix. 6, 2) and the Satapatha Brāhmana (xi. 3, 2, 3) denotes a 'quarter.' This sense is derived from the primary meaning of 'foot,' which as applied to quadrupeds would represent 'one-fourth.' Cf. Pāda.

Pada in the sense of 'quarter of a stanza' is found as early as the Rigveda¹ and often later.² In the Brāhmaṇas it also denotes a 'word' as opposed to a 'letter' (Varṇa).³

i. 164, 24. 45.
 Av. ix. 10, 19; Vājasaneyi Samhitā,
 xix. 25; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, i. 6. 10.

xix. 25; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, i. 6. 10. 17, etc.; Kauşītaki Brāhmaņa, xxii. 1. 5.

³ Kauşītaki Brāhmaṇa, xxvi. 5, where the sequence is half-stanza (ardharca), quarter-stanza (pāda), word (pada), and letter (varṇa). Cf. Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, x. 2, 6, 13; xi. 5, 6, 9, etc.

Padi is found once in the Rigveda, where, according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary, the word probably designates some kind of animal. Yāska explains it as equivalent to gantu, a moving creature, but Durga as meaning bird. The passage may refer to catching the Padi in a net (? mukṣījā).

¹ i. 125, 2.

² Nirukta, v. 18.

³ In his commentary on Nirukta, loc. cit.

4 Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 129; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 244.

Payas denotes the 'milk' of the cow in the Rigveda¹ and later.² More generally it has also the sense of 'sap' or 'fluid'

¹ i. 164, 28; ii. 14, 10; iv. 3, 9; | ² Av. iv. 11, 4; xii. 1, 10; Vājasaneyi v. 85, 2; x. 30, 13; 63, 3, etc. | Saṃhitā, iv. 3. Cf. Go and Kṣīra.

found in plants,3 and giving them life and strength. In other passages it denotes the 'water' of heaven.4 A vow to live for a time on milk alone occurs in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa.5

- ³ Av. iii, 5, 1; x. 1, 12; xiii. 1, 9; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvii. 1; xviii. 36, etc. So of Soma, Rv. ix. 97, 14.
- ⁴ Rv. i. 64, 5; 165, 3; iii. 33, r. 4; iv. 57, 8, etc.
- ⁵ Payo-vrata, 'one who undergoes a vow (to subsist) on (nothing but) milk,' ix, 5, 1, 1 et seq.; Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa, viii. 9. The Dīkṣita subsists on it alone.

Payasyā in the later Samhitās and Brāhmanas¹ denotes curds, said to consist of a mixture of sour milk and hot or cold fresh milk.²

- ¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 3, 13, 2; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 5, 11, 2; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, ii. 22, 24; Satapatha Brāhmaņa, ii. 4, 4, 10, 21; 5, 1, 12; 2, 9, etc.
- ² See Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, 381, n. 2.

Para Āṭṇāra ('descendant of Aṭṇāra') appears in the later Saṃhitās¹ and the Brāhmaṇas² as one of the ancient great kings who won sons by performing a particular sacrifice. In the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa³ he is styled Hairaṇyanābha, 'descendant of Hiraṇyanābha,' and in the Śaṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra⁴ he is called Para Āhlāra Vaideha, a fact testifying to the close connexion of Kosala and Videha. A Yajña-gāthā, or 'sacrificial verse,' there⁵ cited mentions Hiraṇyanābha Kausalya in connexion with Para.

- ¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 6, 5, 3; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxii. 3 (Indische Studien, 3, 473).
- ⁹ Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa, xxv. 16, 3; Jaiminīya Upanişad Brāhmaņa, ii. 6, 11.
- 3 xiii. 5, 4, 4.
- ⁴ xvi. 9, 11. ⁵ Ibid., 13. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 7; Episches im vedischen Ritual, 7; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 165, n. 4.

Parama-jyā, 'of supreme power,' is understood by Ludwig¹ in one passage of the Rigveda² as the proper name of a great man among the Yadus. But it is doubtful whether the word is more than an epithet.³

¹ Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 159.

² viii. 1, 30.

³ Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 39.

Parasu in the Rigveda¹ and later² denotes the axe of the 492 woodcutter. Of its form we know nothing. A red-hot axe was used in a form of ordeal (Divya) applied in accusations of theft.3 See also Parśu.

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1 i. 127, 3; vii. 104, 21; x. 28, 8;
53, 9, etc.
  <sup>2</sup> Av. iii. 19, 4; vii. 28, 1; xi. 9, 1;
Kāthaka Samhitā, xii. 10; Satapatha
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Brāhmaņa, iii. 6, 4, 10; Aitareya Brāhmaņa, ii. 35; Kausītaki Brāhmaņa, x. 1; Kausītaki Upanisad, ii. 11, etc. 3 Chāndogya Upanisad, vi. 16, 1.

Paraśvan. See Parasvant.

Parasvant denotes a large wild animal which Roth1 conjectures to be the wild ass. It is mentioned in the Vṛṣākapi hymn2 of the Rigveda, twice in the Atharvaveda,3 and in the list of victims at the Asvamedha ('horse sacrifice') in the Yajurveda Samhitās,4 in all of which passages the sense of 'wild ass' is satisfactory. More doubtful is the meaning of the word paraśvā(n) in the Kausītaki Upanisad,5 where the commentary explains it as 'serpent.' It is, of course, quite possible that the word has nothing to do with parasvant. Bühler 6 suggests connexion with the Pāli palāsāda, 'rhinoceros.'

Parā-vṛj is a term found in four passages of the Rigveda,1 in all of which it refers to a person in a forlorn condition, while one² of them also speaks of him as going south. Sāyaṇa's³ view that the word is a proper name is most unlikely, while Grassmann's4 explanation of it as 'cripple' is still less probable.

¹ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

² x. 86, 18.

³ vi. 72, 2; xx. 131, 22.

⁴ Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 10; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 8; Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 21, 1, where the commentator takes it to be the wild buffalo.

⁵ i. 2.

⁸ Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 63; Keith, Śānkhāyana Aranyaka, 17, n. 1; Aitareya Āranyaka, 377, n. I.

Cf Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 2,633; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 86, 87; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 335; Geldner, Rigueda, Glossar, 105.

³ On i. 112, 8, etc., cf. Macdonell, 1 i. 112, 8; ii. 13, 12; 15, 7; x. 61, 8. Vedic Mythology, 152. ² x, 61, 8,

⁴ Translation of the Rigveda, 1, 23, and cf. Wörterbuch, s.v.

Roth's⁵ interpretation of it as 'exile' seems clearly right in the passage which refers to the Parāvṛj as going south. Zimmer⁶ accepts Roth's view for this passage, but in the others sees a reference to the child of a maiden exposed by her and in danger of being eaten by insects (vamrī). This view is supported by the fact that parāvṛkta seems to have the same sense,⁷ and is accepted by Oldenberg.⁸

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<sup>5</sup> St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
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⁸ Rgveda-Noten, 1, 200. Cf. above, p. 481, n. 67.

Cf. Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 5, 248; Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 402.

Parāśara is mentioned with Śatayātu and Vasiṣṭha in the Rigvedic hymn celebrating Sudās'¹ victory over the ten kings. According to the Nirukta² he was a son of Vasiṣṭha, but the Epic version makes him a son of Śakti and grandson of Vasiṣṭha. Geldner³ thinks that he is mentioned in the Rigveda along with Śatayātu, perhaps his uncle, and his grandfather Vasiṣṭha, as the three sages who approached Indra and won his favour for Sudās. He is erroneously credited with the authorship of certain hymns of the Rigveda⁴ by the Anukramanī (Index).

veda, 3, 110, 111; Weber, Indische Studien, 9, 324. The Parāśaras as a school appear in the Kāṭhaka Anukramaṇī (Indische Studien, 3, 460).

Pari-kṣit appears in the Atharvaveda¹ as a king in whose realm, that of the Kurus, prosperity and peace abound. The verses in which he is celebrated are later² called Pārikṣityaḥ, and the Brāhmaṇas explain that Agni is pari-kṣit because he dwells among men. Hence Roth³ and Bloomfield⁴ regard Parikṣit in the Atharvaveda not as a human king at all. This may be correct, but it is not certain. Both Zimmer⁵ and

Brāhmaņa, ii. 6, 12; Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xii. 17.

⁶ Altindisches Leben, 185, 334, 335.

⁷ Rv. iv. 30, 19. *Cf.* iv. 30, 16; 19, 9.

¹ vii. 18, 21.

² vi. 30.

³ Vedische Studien, 2, 132.

⁴ i. 65-73.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rig-

¹ xx. 127, 7-10. See also Scheftelowitz, Die Apokryphen des Veda, 156, 157, and the verses in the Vaitāna Sūtra, xxxiv. 9. The Vedic spelling is Parikṣit, not Parīkṣit.

² Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vi. 32, 10; Kauşītaki Brāhmaņa, xxx. 5; Gopatha

³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

⁴ Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 690, 691. but see Atharvaveda, 101, n. 9.

⁵ Altindisches Leben, 131.

Oldenberg recognize Parikṣit as a real king, a virw supported by the fact that in the later Vedic literature King Janamejaya bears the patronymic Pārikṣita. If this be so, Parikṣit belonged to the later period, since the Atharvan passage in which his name occurs is certainly late, and none of the other Saṃhitās know Parikṣit at all. The Epic makes him grandfather of Pratiṣravas and great-grandfather of Pratīpa, and Zimmer, probably with justice, compares the Prātisutvana and Pratīpa found in another late Atharvan passage. But Devāpi and Santanu cannot be brought into connexion with Pratīpa.

⁶ Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 237; Buddha, 396.

7 See Zimmer, loc. cit.

8 xx. 129.

9 Devāpi is really a Brahmin, son

of Rstisena, and not connected directly with Santanu. Yaska, Nirukta, ii. 10, identifies them as brothers and Kurus; but the former part of the identification is, no doubt, wrong.

Pari-gha denotes an iron bolt or bar in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (ii. 24, 6. 10. 15) as often later.

Pari-cakrā is according to one reading the name of a Pañcāla town mentioned in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ and identified by Weber² with the later Ekacakrā, which was near Kāmpīla.³ There is a various reading Parivakrā.⁴

1 xiii. 5,.4, 7.

2 Indische Studien, 1, 192.

3 Mahābhārata, i. 6094.

⁴ Accepted by the scholiast and Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 307.

Pari-cara is found in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ in the sense of 'attendant.' In the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa² pari-caraṇa has the same sense metaphorically, the other two Vedas (Sāma and Yajur) being said to be subsidiary to the Rigveda.

1 iv. 3, 5, 9. Cf. pari-carity, Chandogya Upanisad, vii. 8, 1.
2 vi. 11; Max Müller, Ancient Sanskrit Literature, 457.

Pari-carmanya denotes a thong of leather in the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa (vi. 12) and the Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka (ii. 1).

Pari-takmyā in a number of passages of the Rigveda¹ denotes 'night' according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary.

¹ i. 116, 15; iv. 41, 6; 43, 3; v. 30, 13; 31, 11; vi. 24, 9; vii. 69, 4.

Sieg2 thinks 'hat in one place3 at least the word signifies the decisive point of the race, something like the sense of Prapitva. But this is very doubtful. .

² Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 128. Cf. Geldner, Vedische Studien, 2, 36; Rigveda, Glossar, 106. ³ i. 116, 15.

Pari-dā in a few passages of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ has the sense of 'giving oneself up to the mercy or protection of another.'

1 ii. 4, 1, 11; ix. 2, 1, 17; 4, 2, 17; 4, 5; 5, 1, 53.

Pari-dhana denotes 'garment,' probably 'under garment,' in the Atharvaveda (viii. 2, 16) and the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad (vi. 1, 10). A garment of saffron is mentioned in the Śānkhāyana Āranyaka (xi. 4).

Pari-pad seems in the Rigveda 1 to denote a pitfall used to capture lions.

1 x. 28, 10; metaphorically, viii. 24, 24.

Pari-panthin, 'besetting the path,' denotes 'robber' in the Rigveda¹ and later.² Cf. Taskara, Tāyu, Stena.

1 i. 42, 3; 103, 6; x. 85, 32. ² Av. i. 27, 1; iii. 15, 1; xii. 1, 32; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, iv. 34, etc.

Pari-pavana signifies in the Nirukta (iv. 9. 10) an instrument for winnowing grain.

Pari-mit occurs once in the Atharvaveda¹ in the description of a house, meaning perhaps the 'crossbeams' connecting the vertical posts.2 Cf. Grha.

158; Whitney, Translation of the 1 ix. 3, 1. 2 Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharva-Atharvaveda, 525, veda, 596; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben,

Pari-moșa in the Taittiriya Samhita1 signifies 'theft,' and parimoșin in the Satapatha Brāhmaņa2 'thief.'

> 2 xi. 6, 3, 11; xiii. 2, 4, 2, etc. 1 ii. 5, 5, 1; vi. 1, 11, 5.

496 YEAR-RICE-UNMARRIED ELDER BROTHER [Parirathya

Pari-rathya occurs once in the Atharvaveda1 meaning either 'road'2 or a part of the chariot, perhaps as Ludwig3 and Whitney4 render it, the 'rim.'

1 viii. S, 22.

2 Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 587, following Nīlakantha's explanation of parirathya, Mahabharata, viii. 1487.

3 Translation of the Rigveda, 3,

4 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 506.

Pari-vakrā is the reading accepted in the Satapatha Brāhmana (xiii. 5, 4, 7) by the scholiast instead of the variant Paricakra, which is supported by the Epic Ekacakrā.

Pari-vatsara denotes in the Rigveda¹ and later² a 'full year.' It is often mentioned with other names of year (see Samvatsara), and in the later five year cycle counts as the second year.

1 x, 62, 2. Mahābhārata, i. 3202, etc. So pari- iii. 10, 3.

vatsarina, as an adjective, 'relating to 2 Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa i. 5, 5, 6; a full year, Rv. vii. 103, 8; Av.

Pari-vāpa in the later Samhitās¹ and Brāhmaņas² denotes 'fried grains of rice.'

1 Taittirīya Samhitā, iii. 1, 10, 1; vi. 5, 11, 4; vii. 2, 10, 4; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxxiv. 11: Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix, 21, 22.

² Aitareya Brāhmaņa, ii. 24; Taittirīya Brāhmana, i. 5, 11, 2, etc.

Pari-vitta denotes an 'elder brother who is not married when his younger brother is.' The term occurs in the list of sinful persons in the Yajurveda Samhitas1 as well as in the Atharvaveda,2 where Ludwig3 needlessly proposes to read parivettā, the 'younger brother who marries before his eldest brother.' The name for the younger brother in the older texts is Parivividāna.4

1 Kāthaka Samhitā, xxxi. 7; Kapişthala Samhitā, xlvii. 7; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iv. 1, 9; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 2, 8, 11; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 9.

2 vi. 112, 3.

3 Translation of the Rigveda, 3,

4 So in the Kāthaka, Kapisthala,

Maitrāyanī, and Vājasaneyi Samhitās, loc. cit.

Cf. Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 580 et seq.; Bloomfield, American Journal of Philology, 17. 430 et seq.; Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 522 et seq. ; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 315; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 362.

Parişyanda] WAITER-MENDICANT-COUNCIL-FOOTMAN 497

Pari-vṛl tā, Pari-vṛktī, Pari-vṛttī, are variant forms of the name of the rejected one among the royal wives. See Pati.

Pari-veșțe in the Atharvaveda¹ and later² denotes an 'attendant,' more especially one who serves up food, a 'waiter.' The feminine form Parivestri signifies a 'female attendant' or

1 ix. 6, 51.

² Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 3, 1, 3; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, i. 2, 16; Vājasaneyi Samhita, vi. 13; xxx. 12. 13; Taittiriya Brāhmana, iii. 4, 8, 1; Aitareya Brāhmana, viii. 21; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, xiii. 5, 4, 6; iii. 8, 2, 3; vi. 2, 13, 3, etc.

3 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xi. 2, 7, 4; Kausītaki Upanisad, ii. r ; Keith, Śānkhāyana Āranyaka, 21, n. 2.

Pari-vrājaka (lit., 'wandering about') denotes in the Nirukta (i. 14; ii. 8) a 'mendicant monk.'

Pari-șad (lit., 'sitting around') denotes in the Upanișads1 an 'assemblage' of advisers in questions of philosophy, and the Gobhila Grhya Sūtra2 refers to a teacher with his Parisad or 'council.' In the later literature the word denotes a body of advisers on religious topics, but also the assessors of a judge, or the council of ministers of a prince.3 But in none of these senses is the word found in the early literature, though the institutions indicated by it must have existed at least in embryo.

¹ Brhadāranyaka Upanisad, vi. 1, 1 (Mādhyamdina=vi, 2, 1 Kānva); daivī parisad, Jaiminiya Upanisad Brāhmana, ii. 11, 13, 14.

² iii. 2, 40.

3 Cf. Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 136, 137; Foy, Die königliche Gewalt, 16-19, 33-37; 66; Bühler, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 55, 56; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 124.

Pari-skanda (lit., 'leaping around') occurs in the Vrātya hymn of the Atharvaveda (xv. 2, I et seq.) denoting, in the dual, the two footmen running beside a chariot.

Pari-syanda (with water 'flowing around') in two passages of the Satapatha Brāhmana (ix. 2, 1, 19; xiv. 3, 1, 14) denotes a sandbank or island in a river.

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Pari-sāraka is the name of a place, an island for ned by the Sarasvatī 'flowing around' it, according to a story in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (ii. 19).

Pari-srut is the name of a drink which is mentioned first in the Atharvaveda,¹ and which was distinct from both Surā and Soma,² but was intoxicating. According to Mahīdhara,³ the liquor was made from flowers (Puṣpa). Zimmer⁴ thinks that it was the family drink, and this is supported by the fact that in the Atharvaveda it twice occurs as a household beverage.⁵ Hillebrandt⁶ is of opinion that it was very much the same as Surā.

¹ iii. 12, 7; xx. 127, 9. Cf. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 68.

² Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 1, 2, 14. Cf. v. 5, 4, 10; xi. 5, 5, 13; xii. 7, 1, 7; 8, 2, 15; 9, 1, 1.

3 On Vājasaneyi Samhitā, ii. 34.

4 Altindisches Leben, 281, 282.

⁵ See also Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 15; xx. 59; xxi. 29; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 11, 2. Its nature is more elaborately explained in the Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiv. 1, 14; xv. 10, 11; Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 349, 350.
⁶ Vedische Mythologie, 1, 24, 8.

- 1. Parī-nah appears to denote a 'box' or something similar in the Atharvaveda (xix. 48, 1).
- 2. Parī-ņah is the name of a place in Kurukṣetra mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa,¹ the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka,² and the Sūtras.³

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    1 xxv. 13, 1.
    2 v. 1, 1.
    3 Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, x. 19, 1;
    Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiii. 29, 32.
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Parī-śāsa is the name of an instrument of the nature of tongs, used to lift the sacrificial kettle off the fire.¹

¹ Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiv. 1, 3, 1; 2, 1, 16; 2, 54; 3, 1, 20, etc.

Paruc-chepa is the name of a Rsi to whom the Anukramanī (Index) attributes a series of hymns in the Rigveda, and whose

authorship is asserted in the Aitareya2 and the Kauṣītaki3 Brāhmaṇas, as well as in the Nirukta.4 In the Taittirīya Samhitā he appears as a rival of Nṛmedhas.

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<sup>2</sup> v. 12. 13 (where hymns Rv. i. 128, |
129, 130, 133, 135, 137, 139, are at-
tributed to him).
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Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 116. Parucchepa's claim to authorship is very doubtful.

Parușa seems to mean 'reed' in the Atharvaveda (viii. 8, 4) and 'arrow' in the Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra (xiv. 22, 20).

Paruṣṇī is the name of a river which is mentioned in the Nadī-stuti ('Praise of Rivers'),1 and in the song of Sudās' victory over the ten kings,2 which seems to have been made decisive by the rise of the river drowning the fugitives.3 In these passages and one of the eighth book of the Rigveda,4 where it is called a 'great stream' (mahenadi), the name is certainly that of the river later called Ravi (Irāvatī), as recognized by Yāska.⁵ Pischel⁶ sees a reference to it in two other passages of the Rigveda,7 where 'wool' (ūṛṇā) is connected with the word paruṣṇī, and the allusion to the river is accepted by Max Müller⁸ and Oldenberg,⁹ though they are not fully agreed as to the exact sense of the passages in question. Pischel suggests that the name is derived from the 'flocks' (parus) of wool, not from the bends of the river, as understood by the Nirukta,5 or from its reeds, as Roth 10 suggests.

and were overwhelmed in the river. Hopkins, India, Old and New, 52 et seq., may be right in rejecting in toto the theory of the attempted diversion of the waters, though in the Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 261 et seq., he accepted the traditional view.

³ xxiii. 4. 5.

⁴ x. 42.

¹ x. 75, 5. 2 vii, 18, 8, 9.

³ It is impossible to decide precisely what part the river played in the battle. It is usually held that the enemies of Sudās tried to divert the stream, but failed, and were drowned in its current. So Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, II; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 154; Geldner, Rigveda, Kommentar, 103, holds that Sudās was caught between two opposing armies, and had to escape over the Parusni, that his enemies tried to divert it to render him more accessible to their attack, but failed,

⁴ viii. 74, 15.

⁵ Nirukta, ix. 26.

⁶ Vedische Studien, 2, 208-210.

⁷ iv. 22, 2; v. 52, 9.

⁸ Sacred Books of the East, 32, 315,

⁹ Rgveda-Noten, 1, 348.

¹⁰ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. 4a.

The mention of the Paruṣṇī and the Yamunā ir the hymn celebrating the victory of Sudas has given rise to the conjectures of Hopkins,11 that the Yamunā in that hymn is merely another name for the Paruṣṇī, and of Geldner,12 that the Paruṣṇī there is merely a tributary of the Yamunā (Jumna). But neither interpretation is either essential or even probable. is a condensed one, and may well be taken as celebrating two great victories of Sudas. There is a doubtful reference to the Paruṣṇī in the Atharvaveda.13

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of the Atharvaveda, 462; Whitney,
11 Op. cit., 52.
                                      Translation of the Atharvaveda, 289.
12 Rgveda, Glossar, 106.
13 vi. 12, 3. Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns
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Parus means first a 'limb' or 'member' of the body,1 and is then applied metaphorically to the divisions of the sacrifice 2 or of the year3 (cf. Parvan).

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2 Rv. x. 53, 1; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa,
  1 Rv. i. 162, 18; x. 97, 12; 100, 5;
Av. i. 12, 3; iv. 12, 2. 3, etc.
                        3 Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 5, 6, 1.
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1. Parna denotes the 'wing' of a bird in the Rigveda and later.2 It also means the 'feather' of an arrow in a late passage of the Rigveda,3 and more often later;4 and the 'leaf' of a tree from the Rigveda onwards.5

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4 Av. v. 25, 1; Kāthaka Samhitā,
  1 i, 116, 15; 182, 7; 183, 1; iv. 27,
                                           xxv. 1; Aitareya Brāhmana, i. 25;
  <sup>2</sup> Av. x. 1, 29; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa,
                                           iii. 26, etc.
                                              <sup>5</sup> Rv. x. 68, 10; Av. viii. 7, 12;
i. 6, 3, 5, etc.
                                            Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 5, 1, 7-; Vāja-
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3 x. 23, 14. Cf. Lanman, Sanskrit saneyi Samhitā, xvi. 46, etc. Reader, 386.

2. Parna denotes the tree Butea frondosa, later usually called Palāśa. It occurs in the Rigveda¹ in connexion with the Asvattha, and with that tree as well as the Nyagrodha in the Atharvaveda,2 which mentions both amulets3 and the cover of sacrificial dishes4 as made from its wood. Its use for the

³ iii. 5, 4. 8. 1 x. 97, 5. 4 xviii. 4, 53. 2 v. 5, 5.

making of sacrificial implements like the ladle $(juh\bar{u})$, or sacrificial posts, or the small ladle called sruva, is mentioned. The Taittirīya Samhitā sacribes its origin to the loss of a feather by the Gāyatrī when winning the Soma. The tree is also often mentioned elsewhere. Reference too is sometimes made to its bark (parna-valka).

⁵ Taittirīya Samhitā, iii. 5, 7, 2. Cf. Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iv. 1, 1.

⁶ Pañcavimśa Brāhmana, xxi. 4, 13.
⁷ Kāthaka Samhitā, xv. 2. Cf. viii. 2;
Taittirīya Brāhmana, i. 1, 3, 11; 7, 1, 9;

8, 7.

8 Taittirīya Samhitā, loc. cit., and cf. Kuhn, Die Herabkunft des Feuers und des Göttertranks, 148, 192; Bloomfield, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 16, 20. 24; Hymns of the Atharvaveda,

331, 332; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 91.

⁹ Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 3, 4, 10; vi. 5, 1, 1; xi. 1, 4, 2; 7, 28; Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa, ix. 5, 4.

10 Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 5. 3. 5; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 7, 4, 2. 18,

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 59; Weber, Indische Studien, 17, 194, 195.

Parṇaka is the name of a man included in the list of victims at the Puruṣamedha ('human sacrifice') in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā¹ and the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa.² According to Mahīdhara,³ a Bhilla is meant—i.e., presumably a wild hillman, for he glosses Niṣāda in the same way.⁴ Sāyaṇa⁵ explains the word as meaning 'one who catches fish by putting over the water a parṇa with poison,' but this is apparently a mere etymological guess. Weber's⁶ rendering of the term as referring to a savage 'wearing feathers' is ingenious, but uncertain.

1 xxx. 16.

² iii. 4, 12, 1.

3 On Vājasaneyi Samhitā, loc. cit.

4 On Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvi. 27.

5 On Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, loc. cit.

⁶ Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 18, 281.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 119.

Parṇa-dhi in the Atharvaveda¹ denotes the part of the shaft in which the feather of the arrow is fastened.

1 iv. 6, 5. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Atharvaveda, 375; Whitney, Translation Leben, 300; Bloomfield, Hymns of the of the Atharvaveda, 154.

Parṇaya is the name in two passages of the Rigveda¹ either of a hero, as Ludwig² thinks, or of a demon³ overcome by Indra.

² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 149.

St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Pary-anka is the name of the seat of the Brahman in the Kausitaki Upanisad.¹ It seems to correspond to what is elsewhere called Asandi;² as used in the Upanisad, it can, however, hardly mean a long seat for reclining on, but rather a throne.³

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<sup>1</sup> i. 5.

<sup>2</sup> Av. xv. 3, 3. Cf. xiv. 2, 65;

Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 5. 6. 12.

<sup>3</sup> Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 397.
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401; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 155; Lanman in Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 765, 776.

Pary-āsa is used in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa (iii. 1, 2, 18) to denote the woof of cloth, the warp being called anuchāda.

r. Parvata in the Rigveda¹ and the Atharvaveda² is conjoined with giri in the sense of 'hill' or 'mountain.' From the Rigveda³ onwards⁴ it is common in this sense as connected with the waters of rivers which flow in the hills.⁵ The legend of the mountains having wings is already found in the Saṃhitās.⁵ In the Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad⁻ are mentioned the southern (dakṣiṇa) and the northern (uttara) mountains, evidently in allusion to the Himālaya and the Vindhya ranges. The plants (oṣadhi) and aromatic products (añjana) of the mountains are referred to in the Atharvaveda,⁵ and their mineral treasures in the Rigveda.⁰

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1 i. 37, 7; v. 56, 4.

2 Av. iv. 6, 8; vi. 12, 3; 17, 3; ix. 1, 18; xii. 1, 11.

3 i. 39, 5; 52, 2; 155, 1; 191, 9; ii. 12, 2. 3; 17, 5, etc.

4 Av. i. 14, 1; iii. 21, 10; iv. 9, 8; viii. 7, 17; Taittirīya Samhitā, iii. 4, 5, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvii. 1; xviii. 13, etc.

5 Rv. vii. 34, 23; 35, 8; viii. 18, 16;
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31, 10; x. 35, 2; 36, 1, etc.; Pischel, Vedische Studien, i. 80; 2, 66.

⁶ Kāthaka Samhitā, xxxvi. 9; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, i. 10, 13; and Rv. iv. 54, 5, as explained by Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1, 174.

ii. 13; Weber, Indische Studien, 1,
 407; Keith, Sänkhäyana Āranyaka, 28,
 n. 1.

8 xix. 44, 6; 45, 7. 9 x. 69, 6.

2. Parvata in one passage of the Rigveda¹ denotes, according to Ludwig,² a sacrificer whose generosity is praised. But it is probable that the god Parvata, the spirit of the mountain, is meant.³

¹ vii. 87, 8.

² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 159.

³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

3. Parvata is mentioned several times in the Aitareya Brāhmana along with Narada. The Anukramani (Index) attributes to him the authorship of several hymns of the Rigveda.2

1 vii. 13, 34; viii. 21; Śānkhāyana | Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 17, 4.

2 viii. 12; ix. 104; 105.

Parvan denotes the knots of the reed or the joints of a plant,1 and more generally a part or limb of the body.2 It also designates a period of time, probably with reference to the breaks in the month at new and full moon.3 In one passage4 Geldner⁵ thinks the word indicates a song section of the Sāmaveda.

1 Av. xii. 3, 31; Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 1, 2, 1; Śatapatha Brāhmana, vi. 3, 1, 31, and cf. Rv. x. 68, 9.

2 Rv. i. 61, 12; iv. 19, 9; viii. 48, 5; x. 89, 8; Av. i. 11, 1; 12, 2; ii. 9, 1; vi. 14, 1; xi. 8, 12; xii. 5, 71; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 31; Satapatha Brāhmana, i. 6, 3, 35 et seq.; iii. 4, 4, 2; vi. 1, 2, 31; x. 4, 5, 2, etc.

3 Rv. i. 94, 4; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xiii. 43; Satapatha Brāhmana, i. 6, 3, 35; vi. 2, 2, 34, etc. Cf. Masa. In the Sūtras the days of the four-monthly festivals (cāturmāsya) are so called: Kātyāyana Srauta Sūtra, v. 2, 13; xxii. 7, 1. 16. 17; xxiv. 4, 30; Śāńkh-āyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiv. 5, 6; 10, 4. 18; Āśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, ix. 2, 3; and more often the periods of the change of moon: Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xxiv. 6, 4. 25. 30; Śāńkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iii. 2, 1; 3, 1; Lātyāyana Srauta Sūtra, viii. 8, 46, etc.

4 vii. 103, 5.

5 Rgveda, Glossar, 107.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 364, who quotes Tacitus, Germania, 11.

Parśāna, 'hollow,' is mentioned several times in the Rigveda (vii. 104, 5; viii. 7, 34; 45, 41).

1. Parsu denotes 'rib' in the Atharvaveda and later. 2 Cf. Śarīra.

1 ix. 7, 6; x. 9, 20; xi. 3, 12.

² Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 5, 25, 1; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxxi. 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, viii. 6, 2, 10; x. 6, 4, 1; xii. 3, 1, 6; Şadvimsa Brahmana, i. 3,

2. Parśu seems in some passages 1 to denote a 'sickle,' being apparently a variant of Parasu.

1 Av. xii. 3, 31 (Kausika Sūtra, i. 24. 25; viii. 11; lxi. 38. 39); perhaps vii. 28, 1 = Taittiriya Samhită, iii. 2, 4, 1. See Whitney, Translation of Böhtlingk, Dictionary, s.v.

the Atharvaveda, 407, 408; Brhadāraņyaka Upanisad, vi. 4, 26 (where parsu is metrically needed), etc. Cf.

3. Parśu in the Nirukta1 is explained in one passage of the Rigveda² as meaning the sides of a cistern (kūpa).⁵ But the sense of 'ribs' is quite adequate there.

1 iv. 6. ² i. 105, 8; x. 33, 2.

3 Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 100; Geldner, Rigueda, Glossar, 107.

4. Parśu occurs in one passage in a Dānastuti ('praise of gifts') in the Rigvedal as the name of a man. It is not certain that he is identical with Tirindira, but the Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra² mentions Tirindira Pāraśavya as the patron of Vatsa Kāṇva. In another passage occurring in the Vṛṣākapi hymn,3 Parsu Mānavī occurs, apparently as a woman, daughter of Manu, but who is meant it is quite impossible to say. Excepting these two, there are no other occurrences in which the word has with any probability the value of a proper name in the Rigveda.

Ludwig,4 however, sees in several other places an allusion to the Parsus. Thus in one passage of the Rigveda⁵ he finds a reference to the defeat of Kuruśravana by the Parśus; in another he finds a reference to the Prthus and Parsus—i.c., the Parthians and the Persians. He also sees the Parthians in Pārthava, a name found in one hymn.7 The same view is taken by Weber,8 who holds that historical connexions with the

2 xvi. 11, 20. 1 viii. 6, 46.

3 x. 86, 23. Apparently Vārttika 2, on Pāṇini, iv. 1, 177, where Parśu is explained as a feminine, Princess of the Parsus, refers to this passage. On the sense, cf. Geldner, Vedische Studien, 2, 42; Rigveda, Glossar, 107; and Taittirīya Brāhmana, iii. 2, 2, 2, where the expression occurs, but where the sense is very dubious.

4 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 196

et seq.

5 x. 33, 2. The sense here is, no doubt, 'ribs.' See Geldner, op. cit., 2, 184, n. 3; Bergaigne, Religion Vedique, 2, 362, n.

6 vii. 83, 1, prthu-parsavah, which really means either 'with large ribs'i.e., 'strong,' as Roth, with Sayana, inclines to take it -or ' with broad axes,' according to Zimmer.

7 vi. 27, 8.

8 Indische Studien, 4, 379; Indian Literature, 4; Episches im vedischen Ritual, 36 et seq. He confines his view to the equation of Parsu in Rigveda, viii. 6, 46, and the Persians. Hillebrandt, who is inclined to see relations with Iran in early times (see Pani, Pārāvata, Srnjaya), does not in this connexion quote Parsu at all, and, though he mentions Pārthava, does not regard it as probably referring to a Parthian (Vedische Mythologie, 1, 105). Brunnhofer, in his various works (Iran und Turan, 1889; vom Pontus bis zum Indus, 1890, etc.), finds constant references in the Veda to events in Iran, but his theories must be regarded as definitely unscientific. See also Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 264, n.

Persians are referred to. But Zimmer⁹ points out that this conclusion is not justified; the Parsus were known to Pāṇini 10 as a warrior tribe; the Pāraśavas were a tribe in south-west Madhyadeśa; and the Periplus 11 knows a tribe of Parthoi in north India. At most the only conclusion to be drawn is that the Indians and Iranians were early connected, as was of course the case. Actual historical contact cannot be asserted with any degree of probability.

Ibid., 434, 435, he refutes conclusively | same word. Ludwig's extraordinary view that Prthu 10 v. 3, 117.

9 Altindisches Leben, 134 et seq.; 433. | and Parsu are dialectical forms of the

11 c. 38.

Parsa occurs in the Rigveda, denoting in the plural 'sheaves' strewn over the threshing floor. Cf. Khala.

1 x. 48, 7; Nirukta, iii. 10. Cf. in the Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, xiii. 4, 2, 5, Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 238. Permeans 'having a bundle (of arrows).' haps parsin, in the compound isu-parsin

Palada occurs twice in one hymn of the Atharvaveda1 in the description of a house. It seems to mean bundles of straw or reeds used to thatch the house and render the sides wind and weather proof.

1 ix. 3, 5, 17. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 153; Bloomfield, Hynns of the Atharvaveda, 194, 195.

Palasti. See Palita.

Palāla is found with Anu-palāla in the Atharvaveda (viii. 6, 2) as the name of a demon. The meaning of the word is 'straw,' in which sense it occurs in the Kauśika Sūtra (lxxx. 27), while the feminine form, Palali, is found in the Atharvaveda itself (ii. 8, 3) as the straw of barley (Yava).

Palāva is found in the Atharvaveda and the Jaiminīya Upanişad Brāhmaņa2 in the sense of 'chaff.'

¹ xii. 3, 19, where some manuscripts read palāvā.

Palāsa, like Parņa, denotes 'leaf' in the Brāhmaṇas.¹ It also² designates the tree Butea frondosa, of which Parṇa is the early name.

- ¹ Kauşītaki Brāhmaņa, x. 2; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 5, 4, 5; v. 2, 1, 17 etc.; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iv. 14, 3.
- ² Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 3, 19; ii. 6, 2, 8, etc.
 - Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 59.

Palita, 'grey-haired,' occurs frequently from the Rigveda¹ onwards.² It is the distinctive sign of old age. Those who, like certain descendants of Jamadagni, do not grow old,³ are said not to become grey-haired, while Bharadvāja is described as having in his old age become thin and grey-haired.⁴ The Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa⁵ in one passage observes that grey hairs appear first on the head, and elsewhere⁶ alludes to the hair on the arms having become grey.

- 1 i. 144, 4; 164, 1; iii. 55, 9; x. 4, 5, etc.
 - ² Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 15, etc.
- ³ Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. I, 9, I; Pañcavimsa Brāhmana, xxi. 10, 6. Cf. Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut

Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 54, and Rv. iii. 53, 16, where palasti seems to mean palita.

- 4 Aitareya Brāhmana, iii. 49.
- 5 xi. 4, I, 6. 14.
- 6 iii. 8, 2, 25.

Palpūlana is found in the Atharvaveda¹ and the Taittirīya Saṃhitā² apparently meaning, properly, 'lye,' or water impregnated with some biting substance for washing clothes. In the Atharvan passage urine seems to be meant.³ The verb palpūlaya, 'to wash with alkaline water,' occurs in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā² and the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa;⁴ and the Sūtras refer to hides (carman)⁵ and garments⁶ so washed. Cf. also Vāsaḥpalpūlī.

- 1 xii. 4, 9. Cf. Kausika Sūtra, xi. 16.
- ² ii. 5, 5, 6.
- ³ Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 695. Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 74, 175.
- 4 i. 3, 5, 2. 3.
- ⁵ Kausika Sūtra, 67.
- 6 Sānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iii. 8, 12. Cf. Baudhāyana Dharma Sūtra, i. 6, 13, 15; Böhtlingk, Dictionary, s.v.

Palli-gupta Lauhitya ('descendant of Lohita') is mentioned in a Vaṃśa ('list of teachers') in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 42, 1) as a pupil of Śyāmajayanta Lauhitya.

The name is obviously a late one, for Palli is not found in the early literature, and the name of the Lauhitya family is otherwise known in post-Vedic works only.

Pavana ('purifier') in the Atharvaveda 1 denotes an instrument for purifying grain from husks, etc.; either a 'sieve' or a 'winnowing basket' may be meant. In the Sūtras2 it is mentioned as used for cleaning the bones of the dead after

1 iv. 34, 2; xviii. 3, 11. Cf. Nirukta, ² Aśvalāyana Grhya Sūtra, iv. 5. 7. vi. q.

Pavamāna is a term very frequently applied in the Rigveda to the Soma 'purifying itself' by running through the sieve. Later it appears in a few passages in the sense of 'wind' (as a purifier).

1 Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 5, 20, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, vi. 17; Aitareya Brāhmana, i. 7.

Pavasta in one passage of the Atharvaveda¹ apparently denotes 'covers.'

1 iv. 5, 6. Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 156.

Pavi denotes the 'tire' of the wheel of a chariot in the Rigveda 1 and later.2 Reference is made 3 to the necessity for fastening it on firmly, and the epithet su-pavi, 'having a good tire,' is found in the Atharvaveda 4 with su-nābhi, 'having a good nave,' and su-cakra, 'having a good wheel.' The tires were, of course, of metal,5 and being sharp,6 could serve on occasion as weapons.7 The St. Petersburg Dictionary in one passage of

¹ i. 34, 2; 88, 2; 139, 3; 166, 10, etc.; Nirukta, v. 5.

² Sāmaveda, ii. 7, 1, 15, 3, etc.

³ Rv. vi. 54, 3.

⁴ Av. iv. 12, 6.

⁵ Of gold in the case of the Aśvins and the Maruts, Rv. i. 64, 11; 180, 1.

⁶ Rv. i. 166, 10.

⁷ Rv. v. 52, 9. Cf. vi. 8, 5, and x 180, 2.

the Vājasaneyi Samhitā8 takes Pavi to mean a metal rim on the stone for pounding Soma, but this seems improbable, because no such metal attachment is elsewhere alluded to. brandto seems clearly right in accepting the sense of 'sharp edge' in this passage, especially as the stones in the Rigveda 10 are, in allusion to their rolling action, styled 'rims without horses and without chariots' (anaśvāsali pavayo 'rathāli).

The Nirukta 11 ascribes to Pavi the sense of arrow (śalya), but this is very uncertain. The St. Petersburg Dictionary cites for this use two passages of the Rigveda,12 but in one the secondary sense of sharp-edged weapon with reference to the bolt of Indra is quite likely, and in the other, where the expression vānasya pavi occurs, the sharp-edged pounding-stone of the 'reed,'13 meaning the stalk of the Soma plant, may be meant. Hillebrandt14 thinks a reference to the shape of the Soma plant is intended. Pavi-nasa, the name of a demon mentioned in the Atharvaveda,15 seems to throw no light on this point, for while the St. Petersburg Dictionary takes it to mean 'whose nose is like a spearhead,' it is translated as 'rim-nosed' (presumably in allusion to the curved shape of the nose) by Whitney.16

8 vi. 30. Cf. Satapatha Brāhmaņa, iii. 9, 4, 5. Mahīdhara, on the Vājasaneyi Samhitā, takes pavinā as vajrasadrsena, 'like a thunderbolt,' and Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 26, 239, 240, renders pavi by 'bolt.'

9 Vedische Mythologie, 1, 44.

10 v. 31, 5.

11 xii. 30. 12 ix. 50, 1; x. 180, 2. pression vāṇaṇ dukanti, 'they milk out the reed,' occurs.

14 Op. cit., 1, 43, 44. 15 viii. 6, 21.

16 Translation of the Atharvaveda,

13 Cf. Rv. iv. 24, 9, where the ex-

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 248; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 2, 12, n. 1.

Pavitra denotes in the Rigveda, and later, the sieve used for purifying the Soma, the only mode of purifying it certainly³ known to the Rigveda. It seems clearly 4 to have been made of

¹ i. 28, 9; iii. 36, 7; viii. 33, 1; 101, 9, etc.

² Av. vi. 124, 3; ix. 6, 16; xii. 1, 30; 3, 3. 14. 25, etc.

³ Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, I, 239, 240.

⁴ Cf. the names of it: anva. Rv.

ix. 16, 2; anvāni mesyah, 86, 47; 107, 11; avayah, ii. 36, 1; ix. 86, 11; 91, 2; tvac with avya or avyaya, ix. 69, 3; 70, 7; mesyah, ix. 8, 5; rūpa avyaya, ix. 16, 6; roman, alone or with avyaya; vāra, alone or with avyaya, etc.

sheep's woo!, whether woven or plaited is not certain, for the expressions used are too vague to be decisive, though Zimmer⁵ thinks hvarāmsi6 points to plaiting.

5 Altindisches Leben, 278, n.

6 ix. 3, 2; 63, 4.

Pavīra, according to the Nirukta, denotes a 'lance.' The epithet derived from this word, pavīravant or pavīrava, which is found in the Atharvaveda² and the Yajurveda Samhitās,³ is used of the plough, apparently in the sense of 'having a metal share.' The same epithet occurs in the Rigveda applied to a man, in the sease of 'having a goad' or 'having a spear.'

- seems to mean 'thunderbolt.'
 - 2 iii. 17. 3.
- 3 Pavīravant, Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xii. 71; pavīrava, Taittirīya Samhitā, Atharvaveda, 116.
- 1 xii. 30. In Rv. i. 174, 4, pavīrava | 10, 2, 5, 6; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, ii. 7, 12; Kāthaka Samhitā, xvi. 11.
 - 4 x. 60, 3.
 - Cf. Whitney, Translation of the

Pavīru appears in a hymn of the Rigveda¹ as a Ruśama, being a prince or at least a wealthy noble.

1 viii. 51, 9 = Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxxiii. 82.

Paśu means 'animal' generally, including man. There is frequent mention 1 of the five sacrificial animals—the horse, the cow, the sheep, the goat, and man. Seven such domestic animals are spoken of in the Atharvaveda 2 and later; 3 probably, as Whitney dobserves, merely as a sacred mystic number, not, as the commentator5 explains, the usual five with the ass and the camel added. Animals are also referred to as ubhayadant

1 Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 2, 10, 1-4; Kāthaka Samhitā, xvi. 17; Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, ii. 7, 17; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xiii. 47-51. Cf. Av. xi. 2, 9; Taittiriya Samhitā, iv. 3, 10, 1-3; v. 5, 1, 1. 2; vi. 5, 10, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xiv. 28-31, etc.

² Av. iii. 10, 6.

3 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, ii. 8, 4, 16; ix. 3, 1, 20; xii. 8, 3, 13 (where they are called jāgatāh, perhaps as number-

ing 12); Pañcavimsa Brāhmana, x

1 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 103. 5 On Av. iii. 10, 6. The St. Peters-

burg Dictionary suggests 'mule' and 'ass' as the two making up seven (cf. Mahābhārata, vi. 165 et seq.). Zimmer's view (Altindisches Leben, 76) is that 'goat,' 'sheep,' 'ox,' 'horse,' 'dog,' 'ass,' and 'camel' or 'mule,' are meant.

and anyatodant. They are further classified as those which take hold with the hand (hastādānāh), man (puruṣa), elephant (hastin), and ape (markaṭa), and those which grasp by the mouth (mukhādānāh). Another division is that of biped (dvipād) and quadruped (catuṣpād). Man is a biped; he is the first (prathama) of the beasts; he alone of animals lives a hundred years (śatāyus), on and he is king of the animals. He possesses speech (vāc) in conjunction with the other animals. In the Aitareya Āraṇyaka an elaborate distinction is drawn between vegetables, animals, and man in point of intellect.

Of animals apart from man a threefold division is offered in the Rigveda 14—into those of the air (vāyavya), those of the jungle (āranya), and those of the village (grāmya), or tame animals. The division into āranya and grāmya animals is quite common. 15 In the Yajurveda Samhitās 16 is found a division into eka-śapha, 'whole-hoofed'; kṣudra, 'small'; and āranya, 'wild,' the two former classes denoting the tame animals. 16 The horse and the ass are eka-śapha, 17 the kṣudra are the sheep, the goat, and the ox: this distinction being parallel to that of ubhayadant and anyatodant. 18 Zimmer 19 sees in a passage of the Atharvaveda 20 a division of wild animals (āranya) into five classes: (I) those of the jungle described as the 'dread beasts

⁶ Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 4, 5, 7; Maitrāyaņī, Samhitā, iv. 5, 7 (where puruşa must be read for paruşa).

⁷ Rv. iii. 62, 14; Av. iii. 34, 1, etc. Zimmer, 73, n., suggests that the division is Indo-European, as the Inguvenic tables make a distinction between dupursus and peturpursus.

8 Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 2, 10, 1. 2; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvii. 47. 48.

⁹ Śatapatha Brāhmana, vi. 2, 1, 18; vii. 5, 2, 6.

¹⁰ Taittirīya Samhitā, iii. 2, 6, 3; Śatapatha Brāhmana, vii. 2, 5, 17.

¹¹ Kathaka Samhita, xx. 10; Satapatha Brahmana, iv. 5, 5, 7. Cf. Weber, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 18, 274.

12 Rv. viii. 100, 11.

13 ii. 3, 2, with Keith's note.

14 x. 90, 8.

15 Av. iii. 31, 3. Cf. ii. 34, 1, with Whitney's note, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 78; xi. 2, 24; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 2, 3; 9, 7; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xiii. 12; Taittirīya Āraṇyaka, iii. 2, 29. 32; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 7, 1, 8; 2, 8. Cf. xi. 8, 3, 2, where there is reference to animals being tied up at night in their stalls.

¹⁶ Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 3, 10, 2; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xiv. 30.

17 Zimmer, 74.

18 Cf. Av. v. 31, 3; Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 2, 6, 3, with Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 1, 1, 5; v. 1, 1, 3; 2, 6.

19 Op. cit., 77, 78.

²⁰ xi. 2, 24. 25, compared with xii. 1, 49. 51.

which are i.1 the wood' (mṛgā bhīmā vane hitāh); (2) winged creatures, represented by the Hamsa, 'gander,' Suparna, 'eagle,' Śakuna, 'bird'; (3) amphibia—Śimśumāra, 'alligator,' and Ajagara, 'crocodile' (?); (4) 'fish,' Purīkaya, Jasa, and Matsya; (5) insects and worms (described as rajasāh). But this division is more ingenious than probable, and it is ignored by both Bloomfield 21 and Whitney. 22

21 Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 631. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 72-22 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 633, 634.

Paśu-pa denotes 'herdsman' in the Rigveda. Metaphorically the term is applied to Pūṣan.2

1 i. 114, 9; 144, 6; iv. 6, 4; 2 vi. 58, 2. Cf. of Pūṣan and Revatī, Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 1, 2, 12. x. 142, 2.

1. Paṣṭha-vāh occurs in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās¹ meaning an ox, four years old, according to the commentators. qualification is, however, very doubtful, for Paṣṭhauhī, 'cow,' a word occurring quite frequently,2 is in one passage3 accompanied by the adjective prathama-garbhah, 'having a first calf,' which disproves the theory of the age adopted by the commentators.

1 Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 3, 5, 2; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xiv. 9; xviii. 27; xxi. 17; xxiv. 13. 28. 29, etc.

² Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 1, 6, 3; Kāthaka Samhitā, xi. 2; xii. 8; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xviii. 27; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 3, 3; 8, 3, 2; ii. 7, 2, 2, etc.

3 Satapatha Brāhmana, iv. 6, 1,

2. Pastha-vāh is mentioned as a seer of Sāmans in the Pañcavimsa Brāhmana.1

2 xii. 5, 11. Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 160.

Pastya-sad ('sitting in the house') occurs in one passage of the Rigveda,1 where the sense seems to be 'inmate,' 'comparion.'

1 vi. 51, 9. Cf. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 211.

Pastyā (fem. pl.) is a word occurring in several passages of the Rigveda. 1 Roth 2 ascribes to it the meaning of 'house' or 'dwelling,' in the wide sense of the term, as well as that of the 'family' living in the house; and this view is accepted by Zimmer.3 On the other hand, Pischel4 finds in two of the passages⁵ usually referred to Pastyā the neuter Pastya, which appears in Pastya-sad and in Pastya-vant (where the length of the second syllable is not primitive), and which is certainly found in the Rigveda⁶ in the metaphorical sense of 'dwelling,' ascribed to it in the Naighantuka.7 In the other passages8 he thinks the word means 'rivers' or 'waters': in particular, where Soma in the middle of the Pastyas9 is spoken of, he sees a reference to Kuruksetra, with its several rivers, 10 Āpayā, Dṛṣadvatī, and Sarasvatī (cf. 2. Pastyāvant). In some passages11 he sees in Pastyā the proper name of a stream, just as Sindhu primarily means 'river,' then the 'Indus.'

1 Rv. i. 25, 10; 40, 7; 164, 30; iv. 1, 11; vi. 49, 9; vii. 97, 5; ix. 65, 23; x. 46, 6. See also iv. 55, 3; viii. 27, 5, where Pastyā appears as a goddess.

2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

3 Altindisches Leben, 149. Cf. Weber, Über den Rājasūya, 43, n. 4; 63.

4 Vedische Studien, 2, 211-222. So Geldner, Rigveda, Glossar, 107.

5 vi. 49, 9; vii. 97, 5, where the sense is 'householder' (gṛha-stha or

grhin, as Sāyana renders it).

o x. 96, 10. 11. In x. 96, 10, Roth takes pastyoh to denote the two parts of the Soma press, but Pischel, 2, 211, accepts Sāyaṇa's rendering 'heaven and earth.' In the compounds tripastya of Agni, Rv. viii. 39, 8; vājapastya of Pūṣan, vi. 58, 2, of Soma,

ix. 98, 12; and vira-pastya, v. 50, 4, the primitive word may very well be pastya, not pastyā.

7 iii. 4, misquoted by Sāyaṇa on Rv. i. 151, 2, as applying to pastyā, whereas it really refers to pastya.

8 Rv. i. 25, 10 = Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 8, 16, 1 = Maitrāyanī Samhitā, i. 6, 2; ii. 6, 12; 7, 16; iv. 4, 6 = Vājasaneyi Samhitā, x. 27; Rv. i. 40, 7; 164, 30 (used of Agni's home); iv. 1, 11; ix. 65, 23; x. 46, 6; Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 8, 12, 1 = Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 6, 8 = Vājasaneyi Samhitā, x. 7.

⁹ Rv. ix. 65, 23.

10 Rv. iii. 23, 4.

11 Rv. iv. 55, 3; viii. 27, 5; and in pastyāvant in ix. 97, 18.

r. Pastyā-vant, explained in the Pada text as Pastya-vant, occurs in several passages of the Rigveda. In two of them1

Böhtlingk, Dictionary, s.v., as 'kept in the stall.'

¹ i. 151, 2; ix. 97, 18; but the latter passage is explained by Pischel as referring to Pastyā, the river, and by

a rich householder seems meant, and in the two others reference to a 'house' is clear.2

32, 260, 398, 399, takes Pastyāvant as a place-name, but thinks that pastyā denotes 'hamlet,' or, as an epithet of Aditi, refers to her as a 'housewife' (Rv. iv. 55, 3; viii. 27, 5).

Pāmsu in the Atharvaveda¹ and later² denotes 'dust' or 'sand,' usually in the plural. Among the portents enumerated in the Adbhuta Brāhmaṇa3 is a rain of dust or sand (pāmsuvarsa), a phenomenon not rare in India.4

4 The adjective pāmsura is found in Rv. i. 22, 17, with a variant, pamsula, Sāmaveda, i. 3, 1, 3, 9. Cf. Satapatha Brāhmaņa, iv. 5, 1, 9.

Pāka-dūrvā is, in a verse of the Rigveda,1 included with Kiyāmbu and Vyalkaśā among the plants used for growing on the spot where the corpse of the dead man has been consumed with fire.2 The verse is repeated in the Taittirīya Āraņyaka3

² Barhis, Rv. ii. 11, 16, 'of the house'; kṣayān pastyāvatah, iv. 54, 5, 'abodes having (fixed) habitations.'

Cf. Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 212.

^{2.} Pastyā-vant occurs in one passage of the Rigveda¹ in the locative parallel with Susoma, Saryanavant, and Ārjīka. It must apparently denote a place, as Pischel² argues, probably corresponding to the locality 'in the middle of the streams' (madhye pastyānām), elsewhere3 referred to as the home of Soma. Pischel⁴ suggests that Patiāla is meant, though he does not lay any stress on the similarity of name. In the north of Patiala there are hills where the Soma might have grown. Roth⁵ thought that something connected with the Soma press was meant.

¹ viii. 7, 29.

² Vedische Studien, 2, 209.

³ Rv. ix. 65, 23.

⁴ Op. cit., 2, 219.

⁵ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. 2. Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East,

¹ vii. 109, 2; xii. 1, 26.

² Taittirīya Brāhmana, ii. 6, 10, 2; Nirukta, xii. 19, etc.

³ vi. 8 (Indische Studien, 1, 40). Cf. Varāhamihira, Brhatsamhitā, xxii. 6.

of Philology, 11, 342-350; Journal of the ² See Bloomfield, American Journal | American Oriental Society, 15, xxxix.

³ vi. 4, 1, 2.

with the variant Kyāmbu. In the Atharvaveda⁴ he word is read Śānḍadūrvā. Pākadūrvā is probably, as Sāyaṇa understands it, paripakva-dūrvā, 'ripe or edible millet.' Śānḍadūrvā is explained by the commentator⁵ in various ways, as millet 'having egg-shaped roots' (i.e., sāṇḍa, not śāṇḍa), or as 'having long joints,' with the additional remark that it was called bṛhad-dūrvā, 'large millet.' In the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka, on the other hand, the commentary explains Pākadūrvā as small millet.

4 xviii. 3, 6.

5 Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 850.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 70.

Pāka-sthāman Kaurayāṇa is celebrated as a generous donor in a hymn of the Rigveda. Ludwig² suggests, without much reason, that he may have been a king of the Anus.

1 viii. 3, 21. 24. 2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 160.

Pākāru is mentioned as a disease, together with Viṣūcikā and Arśas, 'hæmorrhoids,' in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā.¹ Its nature is unknown; the etymology² points to the sense of 'developed sores,' 'ulcers.'

1 xii. 97. Cf. Zimmer, Allindisches | 2 From pāka, 'maturity,' and aru = Leben. 393.

Pānktra is the name of an animal mentioned in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha, or 'horse-sacrifice,' in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās.¹ The 'field-rat' seems to be meant.

¹ Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 14, 7; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 26. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 85.

Pānca-janya, 'relating to the five peoples.' See Pancajanāḥ.

Pāncāla means a 'king of the Pancāla people,' and is applied to Durmukha in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa¹ and to Śoṇa in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.² The term is also found in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa.³ See also Pancāla.

¹ viii. 23.

² xiii. 5, 4, 7.

³ iii. 29, 1. Cf. Kāṭhaka Anukramaņī in Indische Studien, 3 460.

Pāñci, 'descendant of Pañcan,' is the name of a teacher mentioned with disapproval in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa.1

1 i. 2, 5, 9; ii. 1, 4, 27. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 434.

Pāṭava, 'descendant of Paṭu,' is a patronymic of Cākra in the Satapatha Brāhmana (xii. 8, 1, 17; 9, 3, 1).

Pāṭā is mentioned in the Atharvaveda¹ and in the Kauśika Sūtra.² It is assumed by the commentator to be identical with the later Patha, the plant Clypea hernandifolia, which was much used medicinally, and is still so used at the present day according to Roth.3 Very possibly the word should be read as

1 ii. 27, 4.

2 xxxvii. 1; xxxviii. 18. Cf. Rgvidhāna, iv. 12, 1.

³ Quoted in Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 68. Cf. Weber,

Indische Studien, 13, 190; 17, 266; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 305, n. 1; Proceedings of the American Oriental Society, May, 1885, xlii-xliv.

Pāṇi-ghna, 'hand-clapper,' is enumerated among the list of victims at the Purusamedha ('human sacrifice') in the Yajurveda.1 Presumably a man who drives away birds from the fields by making a noise is intended.

1 Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 20; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4; 15, 1.

Pāṇḍva in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (v. 3, 5, 21) denotes an uncoloured woollen garment.

Pātalya is found in one passage of the Rigveda 1 meaning some part of the chariot. What it was is quite uncertain. Hopkins² suggests that, as in the Epic, it was possibly a piece of wood on the axle to hold the pole of the car.

mer, Altindisches Leben, 251; Geldner,

¹ iii. 53, 17.

² Journal of the American Oriental Rigueda, Glossar, 108. Society, 13, 242, 243; 20, 224. Cf. Zim-

Pātra, primarily a 'drinking vessel' (from $p\bar{a}$, 'to drink') denotes a vessel generally both in the Rigveda¹ and later.² It was made either of wood³ or clay.⁴ In some passages⁵ the word is, according to Roth, used to indicate a measure. The feminine Pātrī occasionally occurs⁶ in the sense of 'vessel.'

1 i. 82, 4; 110, 5; 162, 13 (to hold the broth from the flesh of the horse); 175, 1; ii. 37, 4; vi. 27, 6, etc.

² Av. iv. 17, 4; vi. 142, 1; ix. 6, 17; xii. 3, 25. 36; Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 1, 6, 2; vi. 3, 4, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvi. 62; xix. 86, etc.

3 Rv. i. 175, 3.

4 Av. iv. 17, 4.

⁵ Av. x. 10, 9; xii. 3, 30; Śatapatha Brāhmana, xiii. 4, 1, 5; Śāńkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 1, 7, etc.

6 Aitareya Brāhmaņa, viii. 17; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, i. 1, 2, 8; ii. 5, 3, 6; 6, 2, 7; Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, v. 8, 2.

Cf. Zimmer. Altindisches Leben, 271.

Pāthya, a word occurring only once in the Rigveda, is either an epithet meaning 'being in heaven' (pāthas), or a patronymic, as Sāyaṇa interprets it, of Vṛṣan.

1 vi. 16, 15. Cf. Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. 4, 2, 4; Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 153.

r. Pāda in the Atharvaveda¹ and later² denotes the 'foot' of an animal, a bird, and other creatures.

1 xiv. 1, 60. Satapatha Brāhmaņa, xii. 8, 3, 6, etc.;
2 Aitareya Brāhmaņa, viii. 5. 12; Kauşītaki Upanişad, i. 5.

2. Pāda, as a measure of length, denotes 'foot' in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.¹ The term is occasionally² used to express a measure of weight. As a fraction it means a 'quarter,' a sense derived from that of 'foot' of a quadruped (just as śapha, the divided hoof, comes to mean an 'eighth').

1 vi. 5, 3, 2; vii. 2, 1, 7; viii. 7, 2, 17; Aśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, vi. 10, etc.
 2 Nirukta, ii. 7; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iii. 1, 2.
 3 Rv. x. 90, 3, 4.

3. Pāda is the regular expression for a 'quarter verse' in the Brāhmaṇas.¹ This sense is merely a limitation of 'quarter' = the 'foot' of a quadruped.

¹ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iv. 4; Kauṣī- | xi. 6; Lāṭyāyana Srauta Sūtra, i. 2, 1; taki Brāhmaṇa, xxvi. 5; Nirukta, vii. 9; | x. 6, 9, etc.

Pāya] DRINK-FOOT-BATH-BAD SEASON-SCAB-GUARD 517

Pāna, 'drink,' occurs in the Satapatha Brāhmana¹ and the Upanisads.2

1 xiii. 4, 2, 17. ² Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, iv. 1, etc. 43: Chāndogya Upaniṣad, viii. 2, 7.

Panta occurs several times in the Rigveda, apparently 2 meaning 'drink,' 'beverage' (cf. Pāna). Geldner,3 however, thinks that in one passage4 Panta is the name of a prince.

i. 122, 1; 155, 1; viii. 92, 1; ix. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Oldenberg, 28 (a very doubtful passage); x. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 122, 123. 65, 28 (a very doubtful passage); x. 3 Vedische Studien, 2, 139; Rigveda, ² So Nirukta, vii. 25; Roth, St. | Glossar, 108.

Pān-nejana in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ denotes a 'vessel for washing the feet.'

1 iii. 8, 2, 1; 9, 3, 27; xiii. 5, 2, 1.

Pāpa-yaksma. See Yaksma.

Pāpa-sama, a 'bad season,' is in the Taittirīya Samhitā1 opposed to Punya-sama, a 'good season.'

1 iii. 3, 8, 4. Cf. Weber, Naxatra, 2, 342.

Pāman occurs in the Atharvaveda¹ as the name of a skin disease. The derivative adjective, Pāmana, 'suffering from skin disease,' is found in the later Samhitas and the Brahmanas.2 Since it is mentioned as an accompaniment of fever, probably a cutaneous eruption or scab consequent on fever is meant.

1 v. 22, 12. Cf. for the reading, Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 261. See also Chāndogya Upanisad, iv. 1, 8.

2 Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 1, 3, 8; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxiii. 4; Śatapatha

Brāhmana, iii. 2, 1, 31.

Cf. Grohmann, Indische Studien, 9, 401 et seq. ; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 388; Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 421, n.; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 450, 451; Atharvaveda,

1. Pāyu, meaning 'guard,' 'protector,' occurs several times in the Rigveda.1

1 i. 147, 3; ii. 1, 7; iv. 2, 6; 4, 3. 12; vi. 15, 8; viii. 18, 2; 60, 19; x. 100, 9.

2. Pāyu is found in the Rigveda¹ as the name of a poet, a Bhāradvāja. In the Bṛhaddevatā² he is credited with assisting Abhyāvartin Cāyamāna and Prastoka Sārnjaya by consecrating their weapons with a hymn.³

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vi. 47, 24. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 128.
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Pāra, in accordance with its derivation (pr., 'bring across'), denotes the 'farther bank' of a river or stream, in which sense it occurs in the Rigveda² and later.³

1 It also often has the generalized sense of 'extreme limit' or 'end,' as in i. 92, 6 (tamasas, 'of darkness'); v. 54, 10 (adhvanah, 'of a road').

² i. 121, 13 (nāvyānām, 'of streams'); viii. 96, 11 (nadīnām); i. 167, 2 (samudrasya); x. 155, 3 (sindhoh), etc. ³ Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 5, 1, 2, 3; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xxxiii. 5; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 6, 2, 4 (salilasya); Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 21 (pāra-kāma, 'desiring the farther bank'), etc.

Pāraśavya, 'descendant of Paraśu,' is the patronymic of Tirindira in the Śānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra (xvi. 11, 20). Cf. Parśu.

r. Pārāvata occurs in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha ('horse sacrifice'), in the Yajurveda, meaning 'turtle-dove.'

¹ Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 14, 6; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 25.

2. Pārāvata occurs in several passages of the Rigveda. Roth¹ thinks that in most places² it means 'coming from a distance,' but in two passages³ he regards it as the proper name of a people on the Yamunā (Jumna). It is certain that in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa the Pārāvatas are a people on that river (cf. Turaśravas). Hillebrandt⁴ sees in all the passages⁵ the name of a people, comparing the Παρυῆται of

² v. 124 et seq., with Macdonell's notes. ³ vi. 75 (the 'battle 'hymn).

¹ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

² Rv. v. 52, 11; viii. 100, 6; Av. xx. 135, 14; pārāvata-ghnī of the Sarasvatī, Rv. vi. 61, 2.

³ Rv. viii. 34, 18; Pañcavimsa Brāhmaņa, ix. 4, 11. Cf. Hopkins, Transac-

tions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 53.

⁴ Vedische Mythologie, 1, 97 et seq.; 3, 310, following Brunnhoser, Iran und Turan, 99.

⁵ See notes 2 and 3.

Ptolemy,6 who apparently were settled on the northern border of Gedrosia, or the Παροῦται, who were found in Αρεία. Τ suggests that they were originally 'mountaineers' (cf. Parvata). Ludwig⁸ holds a similar view, and Geldner⁹ recognizes a people as meant. The mention of the Sarasvatī in connexion with the Pārāvatas2 in the Rigveda accords generally with their position on the Yamunā in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.3

7 Ptolemy, vi. 17.

9 Rigveda, Glossar, 109. Cf. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 91; Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 316.

Pārāśarī-kaundinī-putra is mentioned in the last Vamśa (list of teachers) of the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad (vi. 4, 30), in the Mādhyamdina recension, as a pupil of Gargīputra.

Pārāśarī-putra, 'son of a female descendant of Parāśara,' is mentioned in the last Vamsa (list of teachers) in the Brhadāranyaka Upanisad as a pupil of Kātyāyanīputra,1 of Aupasvatīputra,1 of Vātsīputra,2 of Vārkārunīputra,3 and of Gārgīputra.4 Different men are no doubt meant.

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1 vi. 5, 1, Kāņva.
<sup>2</sup> vi. 5, 2, Kāṇva.
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Pārāśarya, 'descendant of Parāśara,' is mentioned in the first two Vamsas (lists of teachers) of the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad as a pupil of Jātūkarņya1 or of Bhāradvāja.2 A Pārāśarya is also mentioned as a pupil of Baijavāpāyana,3 and Vyāsa Pārāśarya is the pupil of Visvaksena according to the Vamsa at the end of the Samavidhana Brahmana.4 See also Aşādha, Jayanta, Vipaścit, Sudatta.

⁶ vi. 20, 3. It is suggested by Hillebrandt that the 'Απαρύται of Herodotus, iii. 91, may be the same.

⁸ Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 162, 197.

³ vi. 4, 31, Mādhyamdina. 4 vi. 4, 30, Mādhyamdina.

¹ ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3, Kāņva; ii. 5, 21; iv. 5, 27, Mādhyamdina. ² ii. 5, 20; iv. 5, 26, Mādhyamdina; ii. 6, 2; iv. 6, 2. 3, Kānva.

³ ii. 6, 2, Kāņva. Cf. Taittiriya Āranyaka, i. 9, 2. 4 Jaiminīya Upanisad Brāhmana,

Pārāśaryāyaṇa is mentioned in the first two Vaṃśas (lists of teachers) in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad¹ as ɛ pupil of Pārāśarya.

1 ii. 5, 21; iv. 5, 27 (Mādhyamdina = ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3, Kānva).

Pārikuṭa is an obscure word—probably corrupt—occurring in a verse cited in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (viii. 22, 7), and apparently meaning 'attendant.'

Pārikṣita, 'descendant of Parikṣit,' is the patronymic of Janamejaya in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa¹ and the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.² The Pārikṣitīyas appear in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa³ and the Śāṅkhāyaṅa Śrauta Sūtra⁴ as performers of the horse sacrifice. In a Gāthā there cited they are called Pārikṣitas. Apparently they were the brothers of Janamejaya, named Ugrasena, Bhīmasena, and Śrutasena. In the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad⁵ the question whither they have gone is made the subject of a philosophical discussion. It is clear that the family had passed away before the time of the Upaniṣad, and it is also clear that there had been some serious scandal mingled with their greatness which they had, in the opinion of the Brahmins, atoned for by their horse sacrifice with its boundless gifts to the priests. Weber⁵ sees in this the germ of the Epic stories which are recorded in the Mahābhārata.

The verses relating to Parikṣit in the Atharvaveda⁷ are called Pārikṣityaḥ in the Brāhmaṇas.⁸

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1 vii. 27 and 34; viii. 11.
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Pāri-plava, 'cyclic,' is a term applied to the Ākhyāna, or 'tale,' which is to be recited at the Aśvamedha ('horse

² xiii. 5, 4, 1. *Cf.* Gopatha Brāhmaņa, i. 2, 6; ii. 6, 12.

³ xiii. 5, 4, 3.

⁴ xvi. 9, 7. 5 iii. 3, 1.

⁶ Indian Literature, 125, 126; 135, 136. The later legend of the Pārikṣitas and Vāmadeva's mares is dealt with by Weber in Vedische Beiträge (1894).

⁷ xx. 127, 7-10; Śāṅkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xii. 17; Scheftelowitz, Die Apokryphen des Rgveda, 156, 157.

⁸ Aitareya Brāhmaņa, vi. 32, 10; Kauṣītaki Brāhmaņa, xxx. 5; Gopatha Brāhmaņa, ii. 6, 12; Weber, op. cit., 136, n. 144.

sacrifice'), and to be repeated at intervals throughout the year. It is mentioned in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ and in the

1 xiii. 4, 3, 2. 15. ² Āśvalāyana Srauta Sūtra, x. 6; Sānkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xvi. 1, 26; 2.36; Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, ix. 9, 11.

Pārī-ṇaḥya denotes 'household utensils' in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā,¹ where it is said that the wife (patnī), as mistress of the house, has charge of all these.²

¹ vi. 2, 1, 1.

² The word occurs -later in the variant form of pāri-ṇāhya in Manu, ix. 11.

Pārūṣṇa, occurring in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha ('horse sacrifice') in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās,¹ appears to mean some kind of bird.

1 Maitrāyaņī Samhitā, iii. 14, 4; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 24.

Pārovarya-vid in the Nirukta (xiii. 12) denotes 'knowers of tradition.'

Pārṇa-valki, 'descendant of Parṇavalka,' is the patronymic of Nigada in the Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa.¹

1 Indische Studien, 4, 372; Max Müller, Ancient Sanskrit Literature, 443.

Pārthava, 'descendant of Pṛthu,' occurs once in the Rigveda,¹ where the Pārthavas are mentioned as generous donors. The passage is somewhat obscure, as there is a reference² to a defeat of the Turvaśas and the Vṛcīvants by Sṛñjaya Daivavāta, followed in the next verse by the praise of the bounty to the singer of Abhyāvartin Cāyamāna, who was clearly a Pārthava, and who, in the earlier part of the hymn, has been referred to as victorious over Varaśikha. It is uncertain whether, as Zimmer³ suggests, the two princes, Abhyāvartin

¹ vi. 27, 8.

² vi. 27, 7.

³ Altindisches Leben, 133, 134.

Cāyamāna and Srnjaya Daivavāta, are identical or not.4 That Parthava has any direct connexion with the Parthians, as held by Brunnhofer, is most improbable. 5 Cf. Parśu.

4 Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, | Rigveda, 3, 196 et seq. Herodotos, iii. 93, mentions the Πάρθοι. 5 Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the

Pārtha-śravasa, 'descendant of Prthu-śravas,' is found as the name of a demon in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa.1

1 iv. 26, 15. This form of the name | Kausika Sūtra, ix. 10; xvii. 27. But is supported by its occurrence in the | Parthu- is also possible.

Parthya, 'descendant of Prthi,' is the patronymic of some donor in a hymn of the Rigveda.1 The form of the name in the Aśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra2 is Pārtha.

> 1 x, 93, 15. 2 xii. 10. Cf. the Anukramanī on Rv. x. 93.

Pārvati, 'descendant of Parvata,' is the patronymic of Daksa in the Satapatha (ii. 4, 4, 6) and the Kausītaki (iv. 4) Brāhmanas.

Pārṣada, which first appears in the Nirukta, denotes a textbook recognized by a school of grammarians.

1 i. 17. Cf. Max Müller, Ancient Sanskrit Literature, 128 et seq.; Weber, Studien, 3, 269; 4, 217.

Pārṣad-vāṇa, 'descendant of Pṛṣadvāṇa,' is mentioned as a wonder-worker in the Rigveda.1

1 viii. 51, 2. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 139.

Pārṣṇa Śailana is mentioned as a teacher in the Jaiminīya Upanișad Brāhmana (ii. 4, 8).

Pālāgala occurs in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ apparently in the sense of 'messenger,' or 'bearer of false news.'

¹ v. 3, 1, 11. Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 26, 64, renders it 'courier.'

Pālāgalī is the name of the fourth and least respected wife of the king.1 See Pati.

1 Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, xiii. 4, 1, 8; 5, 2, 8, etc.

Pāvamānī means the verses (rcas) in the ninth Maṇḍala of the Rigveda 'relating to Soma Pavamāna' ('purifying itself'). The name is found in the Atharvaveda¹ and later,² possibly even in one hymn of the Rigveda itself.3

1 xix. 71, 1. ² Aitareya Brāhmana, i. 20; ii. 37; Kausītaki Brāhmaņa, xv. 1; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xii. 8, 1, 10; Nirukta, xi. 2; xii. 31; Aıtareya Āraņyaka,

ii. 2, 2, etc.; Maitrayani Grhya Sutra. ii. 14. 3 ix. 67, 31. 32; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 3, 99, n. 3.

Pāśa denotes in the Rigveda¹ and later² a 'rope' used for fastening or tying up. Rope and knot (granthi) are mentioned together in the Atharvaveda.3 Pāśa is in the Śatapatha Brāhmana4 used of the rope by which Manu's ship was fastened to the mountain. It is often employed metaphorically of the 'fetter' of Varuna.5

1 i. 24, 13. 15; ii. 27, 16; 29, 5, etc. | 2 Av. ii. 12, 2; ix. 3, 2; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, vi. 8. 45, etc. 3 ix. 3, 2.

4 i. 8, 1, 5. 5 Rv. vi. 74, 4; vii. 88, 7; x. 85, 24; Av. iv. 16, 6; Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 2, 5, I, etc.

Pāśin, 'having a noose,' denotes a 'hunter' in the Rigveda¹ and in the Atharvaveda.2

> 1 iii. 45, 1; ix. 73, 4. So of Nirrti in Aitareya Brāhmaņa, iv. 10. 2 xvii. 1, 8.

Pāśa-dyumna Vāyata is the name of a king to whom the Vasisthas claim to have been preferred by Indra in one hymn of the Rigveda.1 Apparently he was, as Sāyaṇa says, son of Vayat, who may be compared with the Vyat of another passage of the Rigveda.2 Ludwig3 sees in him a priest of the Prthus and Parsus, but this is most improbable.4

> 1 vii. 33, 2. ² i. 122, 4.

3 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 173. 4 Geldner, Vedische Studien, 2, 130, 139.

Pāṣya occurs in one passage of the Rigveda with reference to the defeat of Vrtra, and apparently denotes 'stone bulwarks.' 524

In another passage² the word may mean the stones used for pressing Soma.

2 ix. 102, 2. Cf. Macdonell, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1893, 457, 458.

Pika, the Indian 'cuckoo,' is mentioned in the list of victims at the Asvamedha ('horse sacrifice') in the Yajurveda Samhitās.¹ Cf. Anyavāpa, Koka.

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 15, 1; | saneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 39. Cf. Zimmer, Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 20; Vāja. | Altindisches Leben, 92.

Pingā is found in one passage of the Rigveda, where it is explained by the St. Petersburg Dictionary with Sāyaṇa as 'bowstring,' but where Hillebrandt thinks that a musical instrument of some kind is meant.

¹ viii. 69, 9.

2 Vedische Mythologie, I, 144, n.

Pijavana is the name of the father of Sudās according to the Nirukta.¹ Probably this statement is based on a mere conjecture from the epithet Paijavana used of Sudās in a verse of the Rigveda,² but may very well be correct.

1 ii. 24. 2 vii. 18, 19. So Aitareya Brāhmaņa, viii. 21.

Piñjūla denotes a 'bundle' of grass or stalks, especially of Darbha. The word is only found in the Brāhmaṇa style.¹

1 Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxiii. 1; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 3; Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa, i. 3; Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa, i. 7; yxiii. 8. It appears in the form of pinjula in Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iv. 8, 7; ii. 7, 9, 5.

Piţhīnas is the name of a man, a friend of Indra, in the Rigveda.¹

1 vi. 26, 6. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 156.

Piṇḍa, denoting specifically a ball of flour offered to the Manes, especially on the evening of new moon, occurs in the Nirukta, and repeatedly in the Sūtras.²

¹ iii. 4. ² Lātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, ii. 10, 4, etc.

Pitā-putra, 'father and son,' is a compound of rare occurrence.1

1 Av. vi. 112, 2; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, xiii. 2, 4, 4.

Pitā-putrīya ('relating to father and son'), used with Sampradana ('handing over') means the ceremony by which a father, when about to die, bequeathes his bodily and mental powers to his son. It is described in the Kausītaki Upanişad.1

1 ii. 15. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 408.

Pitā-maha, beside Tatāmaha, denotes from the Atharvayeda onwards1 the 'paternal grandfather,' apparently as a 'father in a higher sense.'2 The great-grandfather is Prapitamaha and Pratatāmaha.3 It is significant that there are no corresponding Vedic words for maternal grandparents, and that the words used in the latter language, such as Mātāmaha, are imitations of the terms for paternal relations.

In one passage of the Rigveda⁴ Delbrück⁵ suggests that mahe pitre means 'grandfather,' a sense which would well suit the napātam, 'grandson,' following, but the sense of the whole passage is uncertain.6

We learn very little from the texts of the position of grandparents. No doubt they were entitled to marks of respect similar to those shown to parents,7 as the epic expressly testifies. A grandfather might easily be the head of the family, or be living with his eldest son, after he ceased to be able to control the family.

The grandmother (Pitāmahī) is not mentioned in the extant Vedic literature.

4 vi. 20, II.

¹ Av. v. 5, 1; ix. 5, 30; xi. 1, 19; xviii. 4, 35; Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 8, 5, 1; vii. 2, 7, 3; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 36; Śatapatha Brāhmaņa, v. 5, 5. 4.

² Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 474.

³ Av. xviii. 4, 75.

⁵ Ibid., 473.

⁶ See Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 128, n. 1. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., also doubts the view which is accepted by Delbrück, and denies that in Rv. i. 71, 5, the sense of grandfather can be found.

⁷ Delbrück, op. cit., 480, citing Mahābhārata, ii. 1634.

Pitu in the Rigveda¹ and later² has the general sense of 'nutriment,' whether food or drink.

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<sup>1</sup> i. 61, 7; 132, 6; 187, 1; vi. 20, 4, v. 7, 2, 4; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, ii. 20; etc.

<sup>2</sup> Av. iv. 6, 3; Taittirīya Saṃhitā,
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Pitp, common from the Rigveda onwards, denotes 'father,' not so much as the 'begetter' (janitp),¹ but rather as the protector of the child, this being probably also the etymological sense of the word.² The father in the Rigveda³ stands for all that is good and kind. Hence Agni is compared with a father,⁴ while Indra is even dearer than a father.⁵ The father carries his son in his arms,⁶ and places him on his lap,² while the child pulls his garment to attract attention.8 In later years the son depends on his father for help in trouble,⁰ and greets him with joy.¹0

It is difficult to ascertain precisely how far the son was subject to parental control, and how long such control continued. Reference is made in the Rigveda¹¹ to a father's chastising his son for gambling, and Rjrāśva is said to have been blinded by his father. From the latter statement Zimmer infers the existence of a developed patria potestas, but to lay stress on this isolated and semi-mythical incident would be unwise. It is, however, quite likely that the patria potestas was originally strong, for we have other support for the thesis in the Roman patria potestas. If there is no proof that a father

¹ Pitā janitā is used of gods in the Rigveda—e.g., iv. 17, 12.

² As derived from $p\bar{a}$, 'protect.' But, as Böhtlingk and Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. Mātar, footnote, suggest, pa and $m\bar{a}$ were probably the much older original onomatopoetic names for 'father' and 'mother,' which in a later reflective age influenced the formation of pitr and mātr (which themselves go back to the Indo-European period).

³ See, e.g., iv. 17, 17; viii. 86, 4.

⁴ Rv. x. 7, 3.

⁵ Rv. vii. 32, 19; viii. 1, 6.

⁶ Rv. i. 38, 1.

⁷ Rv. v. 43, 7. ⁸ Rv. iii. 53, 2.

⁹ In Rv. x. 48, 1, the jantavah possibly are the sons.

¹⁰ Rv. vii. 103, 3. Cf. i. 24, 1.

¹¹ Rv. ii. 29, 5.

¹² Rv. i. 116, 16; 117, 17. There is also the case of the sale of Sunahsepa, Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 12-18; and cf. Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 3, 3, 3.

¹³ Altindisches Leben, 316.

legally controlled his son's wedding,14 and not much that he controlled his daughter's,15 the fact is in itself not im-

There is again no evidence to show whether a son, when grown up, normally continued to stay with his father, his wife becoming a member of the father's household, or whether he set up a house of his own: probably the custom varied. Nor do we know whether the son was granted a special plot of land on marriage or otherwise, or whether he only came into such property after his father's death. But any excessive estimate of the father's powers over a son who was no longer a minor and naturally under his control, must be qualified by the fact that in his old age the sons might divide their father's property,16 or he might divide it amongst them,17 and that when the father-in-law became aged he fell under the control of his son's wife.18 There are also obscure traces that in old age a father might be exposed, though there is no reason to suppose that this was usual in Vedic India.19

Normally the son was bound to give his father full obedience.20 The later Sūtras show in detail the acts of courtesy which he owed his father, and they allow him to eat the remnants of his father's food.21 On the other hand, the father was expected to be kind. The story of Sunahsepa in the Aitareva Brah-

14 Cf. Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 576. Ibid., 582, he quotes Mahābhārata, xii. 6108 et seq., which refers in one line to the control of the marriage of the son by the father, and in the next to a case of free marriage. The fact is, no doubt, that the son could marry freely, unless his father had arranged matters for him when he was too young to object.

15 Zimmer, op. cit., 309, assumes this as certain, but it is far from proved. See, however, Jaiminīya Upanisad Brāhmaṇa, iii. 12, 2, which is in favour of Zimmer's view. Cf. Kaegi, Der Rigveda, 15, and Pati.

16 Rv. i. 70, 10; Aitareya Brāhmana, v. 14; Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 156 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 26, 61, 62).

17 Taittirīya Samhitā, iii. 1, 9, 4-6. Cf. the handing over from father to son in the Kausītaki Upanisad, ii. 15. If the father recovered, he lived subject to his son.

18 Rv. x. 85, 46.

19 Cf. Rv. viii. 51, 2; Av. xviii. 2, 34. The first passage need not refer to exposure, and the second merely refers to the exposure of a dead body; but Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 326 - 328, thinks that they prove exposure. Cf. Dharma.

20 Rv. i. 68, 5.

21 Apastamba Dharma Sūtra, i. 1,

maṇa ²² emphasizes the horror with which the father's heartless treatment of his son was viewed. The Upaniṣads ²³ insist on the spiritual succession from father to son. The kissing of a son ²⁴ was a frequent and usual token of affection, even in mature years.

On the failure of natural children, adoption was possible.25 It was even resorted to when natural children existed, but when it was desired to secure the presence in the family of a person of specially high qualifications, as in Viśvāmitra's adoption of Sunahsepa.26 It is not clear that adoption from one caste into another was possible, for there is no good evidence that Viśvāmitra was, as Weber 27 holds, a Kṣatriva who adopted a Brāhmaṇa. Adoption was also not always in high favour: it may be accidental or not that a hymn of the Vasistha book of the Rigveda²⁸ condemns the usage. It was also possible for the father who had a daughter, but no sons. to appoint her to bear a son for him. At any rate the practice appears to be referred to in an obscure verse of the Rigveda 29 as interpreted by Yāska.30 Moreover, it is possible that the difficulty of a brotherless maiden finding a husband³¹ may have been due in part to the possibility of her father desiring to make her a Putrikā, the later technical name for a daughter whose son is to belong to her father's family.

There can be no doubt that in a family the father took precedence of the mother.³² Delbrück ³³ explains away the apparent cases to the contrary.³⁴ There is no trace of the

²² vii. 12 et seq.; Śāńkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 17 et seq.

²³ E.g., Kauşītaki Upanişad, ii. 15; Brhadāranyaka Upanişad, i. 5, 25 (Mādhyamdina=i. 5, 17, Kānva).

²⁴ See Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 28, 120-134; Keith, Śāikhāyana Āranyaka, 26, n. 3.

²⁵ Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 318; Mayr, Indisches Erbrecht, 73; Jolly, Die Adoption in Indien (Würzburg, 1910), 7 et sen.

²⁶ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 17 et seq.; Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 17. Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 157.

27 Episches im vedischen Ritual, 33, 34.

²⁸ vii. 4, 7. 8.

29 iii. 31, 1.

30 iii. 5 ad fin. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 5, 343; Geldner, Vedische Studien, . 3, 34; Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 239-241.

31 Cf. Bhratr.

³² Satapatha Brāhmana, ii. 5, 1, 18; a citation in Sānkhāyana Grhya Sūtra, i. 9; Chāndogya Upanişad vii. 15, 2.

33 Die indogermanischen Verwandt-

schaftsnamen, 577.

34 Brhadāranyaka Upanişad, iv. 7, 5. Some passages in the Sütras present difficulties, but they are of no importance for Vedic times proper.

family as a land-owning corporation.35 The dual form Pitarau regularly means 'father and mother,' 'parents.'36

35 Baden Powell, whose various works (Indian Village Community, 1896; Village Communities in India, 1899, etc.) have done most to combat the view of the village community in India as a land-holding institution, is prepared to recognize the family as a land-owning unit, considering that the patria potestas is a later growth, and not Indian (see, e.g., Village Communities in India, 128 et seq.). Hopkins India, Old and New, 213 et seq., adopts a theory which allows of individual and joint family ownership side by side, the latter being apparently the earlier but the decadent stage. He expressly considers (p. 222) that the son had an indefeasible right to prevent the father from alienating the hereditary land, which could only be parted with by the consent of the village if it were a case of joint ownership (cf. the verse cited by Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 94). But it must be remembered that, as is very clearly shown in the case of English law by Pollock and Maitland (History of English Law, 2, 337-352), the recognition of the rights

of sons may well be, not a sign of original joint or family ownership, but a development from the existence of intestate succession, and as in England, so in India, there is no trace of a corporate joint family in the early books. And, as Jolly (op. cit., 76, 80) shows, there are clear traces, both in old and modern times, of a despotic control of the family by the father even after his sons grew up, provided only that he was physically able to control them. The same state of affairs seems proved for early English law, as it is beyond question for Roman law (see Smith's Dictionary of Antiquities, 2, 351 et seq.). In Greece also, which is sometimes contrasted with Rome, there is the clearest trace of both a real patria potestas, and of the absolute ownership of the land by the father as against the son, especially in the archaic laws of Gortyn (see Gardner and Jevons, Greek Antiquities, 404, 405, 563, 566).

36 Rv. i. 20, 4; 160, 3; ii. 17, 7; vii. 67, 1; Kāthaka Samhitā, xxiii 10; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 11, etc.

Pitr-yana, the 'way of the fathers,' mentioned in the Rigveda1 and later,2 is opposed to the Deva-yana, or 'way of the gods.' Tilak³ considers that the Devayana corresponds with the Uttarāyaņa, 'northern journey' of the sun, and the Pitryāņa with the Daksināyana, its 'southern journey.' He concludes from a passage of the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa,4 where three of the seasons-spring, summer, and the rains-are ascribed to the gods, but the others to the Pitrs, or Fathers, that the Devayāna began with the vernal equinox, and the Pitryāna with the autumnal equinox. With this he connects the curious

¹ x. 2, 7. Cf. the allusion to it in x. 18, 1, as other than the Devayana, which appears in x. 98, 11.

² Av. viii. 10, 19; xii. 2, 10, etc.;

Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 45; Chāndogya Upanişad, v. 3, 2, etc.

³ Orion, 22 et seg.

⁴ ii. 1, 3, 1-3.

distinction of Deva- and Yama-Nakṣatras in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa.⁵ These conclusions are, however, very improbable. Cf. Nakṣatra and Sūrya.

⁵ i. 5, 2, 6.

Pitṛ-han, 'parricide,' is found in the Atharvaveda,¹ Paippalāda recension.

1 ix. 4, 3. Cf. Böhtlingk, Dictionary, s.v.

Pitrya occurs in the list of sciences given in the Chandogya Upaniṣad.¹ Apparently it is to be taken as the science relating to the cult of the Manes, as explained by Śańkara in his commentary. As it is in that list followed by Rāśi, the St. Petersburg Dictionary is inclined to take Pitrya Rāśi as one expression, but in what exact sense does not appear.

¹ vii. 1, 2, 4; 2, 1; 7, 1. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 267; Little, Grammatical Index, 98.

Pitva¹ or Pidva² is the name of an animal included in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha ('horse sacrifice') in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās. According to the commentator on the Taittirīya Saṃhitā¹ it means 'lion.' But it may be identical with Petva.

¹ Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 17, 1. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 79; Bloom² Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 14, 13; field, Journal of the American Oriental Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 32. Cf. Society, 29, 290.

Pināka, 'club,' is found in the Atharvaveda.¹ Later² it is used to denote the club of Rudra-Śiva.

¹ i. 27, 2. Vājasaneyi Samhitā, iii. 61; xvi. 51, ² Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 8, 6, 2; etc.

Pinvana occurs in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa (xiv. 1, 2, 17; 2, 1, 11; 3, 1, 22) as the name of a vessel used in the ritual.

Pipīla, 'ant,' is mentioned in the Rigveda (x. 16, 6) as eating the flesh of the dead.

Pipīlikā in the Atharvaveda1 and later2 denotes an 'ant,' the form of the word referring doubtless not so much to the small species of ant, as it is taken in the later lexicons,3 but rather to the insect's tiny size, which would naturally be expressed by a diminutive formation of the name. The form Pipīlaka4 is found in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad.5

1 vii. 56, 7. Cf. xx. 134, 6. ² Maitrāyanī Samhitā, iii. 6, 7; Pancavimsa Brahmana, v. 6, 10; xv. 17, 8; Brhadaranyaka Upanisad, i. 4, 9. 29 (Mādhyamdina=i. 4, 4, 16 Kānva); Nirukta, vii. 13; Aitareya Aranyaka, i. 3, 8; ii. 1, 6.

- 3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
- 4 Cf. kanīnaka beside kanīnikā, 'pupil of the eye.'
 - ⁵ vii. 2, 1; 7, 1; 8, 1; 10, 1.
- Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 97; Edgerton, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 31, 128.

Pippakā is mentioned in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha ('horse sacrifice') in the Yajurveda Samhitās.1 Some bird seems to be meant.

1 Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 19, 1; | saneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 40. Cf. Zimmer, Maitrayani Samhita, iii. 14, 21; Vaja- | Altindisches Leben, 93.

Pippala, n., is found in two passages of the Rigveda¹ meaning 'berry,' used with a mystic signification, and in neither case with any certain reference to the berry of the fig-tree.2 In the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad3 the general sense of 'berry' is not necessary, and the special sense of 'berry' of the Peepal is quite possible: the latter meaning is perhaps intended in the Satapatha Brāhmana.4 In the Atharvaveda⁵ the feminine form of the word, Pippali, appears denoting berries used as a remedy for wounds, like Arundhatī.6

1 i. 164, 20 = Mundaka Upanisad, iii. 1, 1; Śvetāśvatara Upanisad, iv. 6, 22; v. 54, 12 (the 'berry' of heaven, nāka).

² The word Pippala appears in the later literature as a masculine, denoting the Ficus religiosa (Asvattha in Vedic literature).

3 iv. I, 4I.

⁴ iii. 7, 1, 12.

⁵ vi. 109, 1. 2.

⁶ Bloomfield, Atharvaveda, 61; Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 516; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 359. 360; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 389; Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 331.

Pippalada ('eater of berries') is the name of a teacher mentioned in the Prasna Upanisad. In the plura the name denotes a school of the Atharvaveda.2 Their (Paippalāda) recension of the text of the Samhitā has been reproduced in facsimile by Garbe and Bloomfield,3 and in part published.4

1 i. T.

2 Weber, Indische Studien, 3, 277; Indian Literature, 153, 159, 160, 164.

3 Baltimore, 1901.

4 The variants of the Paippalada are given in part in Whitney's Translation

of the Atharvaveda, and the text of books i. and ii. has been edited by Barret in the Journal of the American Oriental Society, 26, 197-295; 30, 187 et seq. Cf. also Lanman in Whitney's Translation, lxxix et seq

Pipru is the name of a foe of Indra in the Rigveda. He was repeatedly defeated by Indra for Rjiśvan. Mentioned as possessing forts,2 he is called a Dāsa3 as well as an Asura.4 He is described as having a black brood,5 and as being allied with blacks.6 It is uncertain whether he was a demon, according to Roth's view, which is favoured by the use of the word Asura, or a human foe, as Ludwig,8 Oldenberg,9 and Hillebrandt10 believe. The name may mean 'resister,' from the root pr.

1 i. 101, 1. 2; iv. 16, 13; v. 29, 11; vi. 20, 7; viii. 49, 10; x. 99, 11; 138, 3. In i. 103, 8; ii. 14, 5; vi. 18, 8, the reference is general to a defeat of Pipru by Indra.

² Rv. i. 51, 5; vi. 20, 7.

3 Rv. viii, 32, 2.

4 Rv. x. 138, 3.

5 Rv. i. 101, 1.

6 iv. 16, 13.

7 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

8 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 149.

9 Religion des Veda, 155.

10 Vedische Mythologie, 3, 273.

Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 161 (C).

Piśa is found in one passage of the Rigveda,1 where Sāyaņa takes it to mean a deer (ruru).

1 i. 64, 8. Cf. Av. xix, 49, 4; | Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 83; Max | 118; Geldner, Rigveda, Glossar, 110.

Piśanga is the name of one of the two Unnetr priests officiating at the snake festival mentioned in the Pañcavimśa Brāhmana.1 Cf. Caka.

Piśāca is the name of a class of demon mentioned in the Atharvaveda 1 and later. 2 In the Taittirīya Samhitā 3 they are associated with Raksases and Asuras, while opposed to gods, men, and fathers. In the Atharvaveda4 they are described as kravyād, 'eaters of raw flesh,' which may be the etymological sense of the word Piśāca itself.⁵ It is possible that the Piśācas were, as suggested by Grierson,6 really human foes, like the north-western tribes, who even in later times were reputed eaters of raw flesh (not necessarily as cannibals, but rather as eaters of human flesh in ritual). This is, however, not at all likely, the Pisacas having in all probability only meant 'ghouls' originally: when they appear as human tribes, they were presumably thus designated in scorn. A science called Piśācaveda or Piśāca-vidyā is known in the later Vedic period.

Piśita in the Atharvaveda¹ and later² denotes raw flesh (cf. Piśāca). In one passage of the Atharvaveda³ the sense seems to be 'small piece,' 'bit,' but the St. Petersburg Dictionary suggests that Piśita here stands for pisita, equivalent to pista (what is 'pounded,' then 'particle').

Piśīla is found in the Śatapatha Brāhmaņa (ii. 5, 3, 6) as the name of a wooden vessel or dish. In the Latyayana Śrauta Sūtra (iv. 2, 4. 5) a Pisīla-vīnā is mentioned, which seems to have been a kind of guitar, with strings stretched over a body of wood.

¹ ii. 18, 4; iv. 20, 6. 9; 36, 4; 37. 10; v. 29, 4. 5. 14; vi. 32, 2; viii, 2, 12; xii. 1, 50. The word occurs once in the Rv. (i. 133, 5) in the form of Piśāci.

² See St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. 3 ii. 4, 1, 1; Kāthaka Samhitā,

xxxvii. 14.

⁴ v. 25, 9.

⁵ Cf. Oldenberg, Religion des Veda,

⁶ Cf. Grierson, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1905, 285-288. Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 164 (B).

⁷ Gopatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 10.

⁸ Asvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, x. 7. 6.

¹ v. 19, 5. ² Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 11; Kauśika Sūtra, xii. 8; xxxv. 18; xxxix. 14, etc.

³ vi. 127, 1. Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 531; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 376.

Piśuna, 'traitor,' is mentioned in the Rigveda¹ and occasionally later.²

vii. 104, 20.
 Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 13; Chān dogya Upaniṣad, vii. 6, 1; Taittirīya
 Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 7, 1.

Piṣṭa ('pounded'), n., 'meal,' 'flour,' is mentioned in the Brāhmaṇas.¹ In the Atharvaveda² reference is made to pounded beans $(m\bar{a}s\bar{a}h)$.

Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 9; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 4, 3; 2, 1, 2; vi
 1, 1, 6, etc.

Pīṭha, 'stool,' does not occur as an uncompounded word before the Sūtras, but the compound pīṭha-sarpin ('moving about in a little cart') is found as the designation of a 'cripple' in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā (xxx. 21) and the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa (iii. 4, 17, 1) in the list of victims at the Puruṣamedha ('human sacrifice').

Pītu-dāru is found in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā¹ and later² denoting the Deodar (deva-dāru) tree, or, according to others, the Khadira or Udumbara tree.³ Cf. Pūtadru.

Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xxv. 6.
 Satapatha Brāhmaņa, iii. 5, 2, 15;
 xiii. 4, 4, 5. 17; Paūcavimsa Brāhmaņa,
 xxiv. 13, 5.

³ Mahīdhara on Vājasaneyi Samhitā, v. 14; Sāyaņa on Aitareya Brāhmaņa, i. 28.

Pīyūṣa is found in the Rigveda¹ and later² in the sense of the first milk of the cow after calving, 'biestings.' Usually the term is applied metaphorically to the sap of the Soma plant.³

¹ Cf. ii. 35, 5, where it is applied figuratively to the mothers of Agni.

² Kausika Sūtra, xix. 15. Cf. Av. viii. 9, 24.

³ Rv. ii. 13, 1; iii. 48, 2; vi. 47, 4; x. 94, 8, etc.

Cf. Geldner, Rigveda, Glossar, 110.

Pīlā occurs once in the Atharvaveda¹ as the name of an Apsaras, being no doubt originally a name of some fragrant

¹ iv. 37, 3. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 69; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 211:

Puñiistha] A TREE—A HEAVEN—HARLOT—MALE-BIRTH 535 plant, like Naladī and Guggulū, two other names of Apsarases given in the same verse.

Pilu is the name in the Atharvaveda¹ of a tree (Careya arborea or Salvadora persica) on the fruit of which doves fed.

1 XX. 135, 12. Cf. Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 62; Weber, Transactions of the Berlin Academy, 1895, 861.

Pīlumatī is in the Atharvaveda (xviii. 2, 48) the name of the intermediate heaven lying between the *udanvatī*, 'watery,' and the *pra-dyauḥ*, 'farthest heaven.' It presumably means 'rich in Pīlu.' *Cf.* Div.

Pumś-calī ('running after men') is found in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā,¹ the Atharvaveda,² and later,³ to denote a 'wanton woman.' In the Vājasaneyi Samhitā⁴ also occurs the form Pumścalū. See also Dharma and Pati.

1 xxx. 22.
 2 xv. 2, 1 et seq.
 3 Paācavimsa Brāhmaņa, viii. 1, 10;
 Kausītaki Brāhmaņa, xxvii. 1; Lāṭy-āyana Srauta Sūtra, iv. 3, 9, 11.

4 xxx. 5. 20; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, iii. 4, 1, 1; 15, 1; Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiii. 3, 6.

Pum-savana ('male-production' ceremony) is found in the Atharvaveda¹ in a hymn which is obviously intended to accompany a rite aiming at securing the birth of a male child, and which is so applied in the ritual.²

¹ vi. 11, 1.

² Kausika Sūtra, xxxv. S. Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 460; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 288. The later Grhya ritual

knows a special rite called Puṃsavana. See Āśvalāyana Gṛhya Sūtra, i. 13; Sāṅkhāyana Gṛhya Sūtra, i. 20; Gobhila Gṛhya Sūtra, ii. 6, 1 et seq.; Hillebrandt, Rituallitteratur, 41.

Puklaka. See Paulkasa.

Punji-stha is found in the Yajurveda Samhitas¹ and later,² apparently meaning 'fisherman,' though Mahīdhara³ explains it as 'bird-catcher.' Cf. Paunjistha.

¹ Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvi. 27; Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 5, 4, 2; Maitrāyanī Samhitā, ii. 9, 5; Kāthaka Samhitā, xvii. 13.

² Āśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, x. 7; Pānini, viii. 3, 97.

3 On Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvi. 27.

Punjīla is found in the Taittirīya Samhitā¹ and the Taittirīya Brāhmaņa² in the sense of a 'bundle' of grass, being a variant of Pinjūla.

1 vi. I, I, 7; 2, 4, 3.

² i. 7, 6, 4; ii. 7, 9, 5.

Puṇḍarīka denotes the blossom of the lotus in the Rigveda¹ and later.² The Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa³ states that the lotus flower is born of the light of the Nakṣatras, and the Atharvaveda⁴ compares the human heart to the lotus.⁵

1 x. 142, 8.

² Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 8, 2, 1; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 5, 5, 6; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 3, 10; vi. 3, 14; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, i. 6, 7; Aitareya Āraṇyaka, iii. 2, 4.

³ xviii. 9, 6.

4 x. 8, 43; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, viii. 1, 1.

⁵ In the Taittirīya Samhitā, i. 8, 18, 1; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 8, 2, 1, pundari-srajā denotes a 'wreath of lotus leaves.'

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 71.

Puṇḍra is the name of a people regarded as outcasts in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.¹ Their name occurs in the Sūtras also.² In the Epic their country corresponds with Bengal and Bihar.

¹ vii. 18; Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 26.

² Baudhāyana Dharma Sūtra, i. 2, 14. Cf. Caland, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 56, 553;

Bühler, Sacred Books of the East, 14, 148; Oldenberg, Buddha, 394, n. For the later geographical position of the Pundras, cf. the map in Pargiter, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1908, 333.

Putra is, with Sūnu, the usual name for 'son' from the Rigveda onwards.¹ The original sense of the word was apparently 'small,' or something analogous.² The form Putraka³ is often used with the distinct intention of an affectionate address to a younger man, not merely a son proper. Reference is frequently made to the desire for a son.⁴ Cf. Pati.

¹ Rv. ii. 29, 5; v. 47, 6; vi. 9, 2, etc.; Av. iii. 30, 2, etc.

² Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 454.

³ Rv. viii. 69, 8; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, v. 14; vi. 33 (here the narrative uses Putra; the reported words have

Putraka); Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 6, 1, 2; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 3, 21, etc.

⁴ Rv. x. 183, 1; Av. vi. 81, 3; xi. 1, 1; Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 5, 6, 1; vii. 1, 8, 1; Taittirīya Brāhmaņa, i. 1, 9, 1.

Punarvasu] INHERITING DAUGHTER-REMARRIED WIDOW 537

Putra-sena is the name of a man in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā (iv. 6, 6).

Putrikā in the later literature¹ has the technical sense of the daughter of a man without sons, whom he gives in marriage on the express terms that her son shall perform the funeral rites for him, and be counted as his. The thing as well as the name is recognized by Yāska in the Nirukta,² and traced to the Rigveda.³ But the passages in the Rigveda are of very uncertain meaning,⁴ and in all probability do not refer to this custom at all.

iii. 5 ad fin.
 i. 124, 7. Cf. iii. 31, 1.

Rgveda-Noten, 1, 239 et seq.; Roth, Nirukta, Erläuterungen, 27; Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 72, 73; Brhaddevatā, iv. 110. 111, with Macdonell's note; Keith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1910, 924, 925; Jolly, Die Adoption in Indien, 32.

Punar-datta ('given again') is the name of a teacher in the Śānkhāyana Āraṇyaka (viii. 8).

Punar-bhū is found in the Atharvaveda¹ meaning a wife who marries again, a rite being mentioned by which she can ensure reunion with her second (not her first) husband in the next world.

1 ix. 5, 28. Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 537.

Punar-vasu ('bringing goods again'), used in the dual, denotes the fifth in the series of the Vedic Nakṣatras, or 'Lunar Mansions.' Roth¹ takes the word to have this sense in its only occurrence in the Rigveda,² but this must be regarded as decidedly doubtful. The term is, however, found in the ordinary lists of the Nakṣatras in the later Saṃhitās and the Brāhmaṇas.³

¹ Mānava Dharma Śāstra, ix. 127 et seq.; Gautama Dharma Sūtra, xxviii. 20; Vasisiha Dharma Sūtra, xvii. 17.

⁴ Cf. Geldner, Vedische Studien, 3, 34; Rigveda, Kommentar, 48, 49; Oldenberg,

¹ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

² x. 19, 1.

Av. xix. 7, 1; Taittirīya Samhitā,
 5, 1, 4; iv. 4, 10, 1; Taittirīya
 Brāhmaņa, i. 1, 2, 3; Kauşītaki Brāh-

maņa, i. 3; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, viii. 15; xxxix. 13; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1, 2, 10, etc.

^{2, 10,} etc.

Cf. Weber, Naxatra, 2, 289, 290;

Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 355.

Punaḥ-sara, 'recurrent,' is the epithet of the barking dog in the Rigveda,¹ which is told to bark at the thief. It refers, no doubt, to the dog's practice of running to and fro when it barks. It is also applied to a plant, Apāmārga (Achyranthes aspera), in the Atharvaveda,² with the sense of 'having revertent leaves.'

¹ vii. 55, 3; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 56, n. 1.

² iv. 17, 2; vi. 129, 3; x. 1, 9. Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 179. Bloomfield, Hymns of the

Atharvaveda, 394, prefers the sense of 'attacking,' which is the meaning of prati-sara, Av. viii. 5, 5. Cf. Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 2, 4, 20.

Pumāms denotes in the Rigveda¹ and later² man as the 'male.' It has no special reference to marriage like Pati, or to heroism like Nr or Nara. In grammar it denotes the masculine gender.³

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<sup>1</sup> i. 124, 7; 162, 22; iii. 29, 13; iv. 3, 10, etc.
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³ Nirukta, iii. 8; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, x. 1, 1, 8; 5, 1, 3. *Cf.* iv. 5, 2, 10, and puṃsā nahṣatreṇa, 'a Nakṣatra with a masculine name,' in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 3, 1.

Pur is a word of frequent occurrence in the Rigveda¹ and later,² meaning 'rampart,' 'fort,' or 'stronghold.' Such fortifications must have been occasionally of considerable size, as one is called 'broad' (pṛthvī) and 'wide' (urvī).³ Elsewhere⁴ a forf 'made of stone' (aśmamayī) is mentioned. Sometimes strongholds 'of iron' (āyasī) are referred to,⁵ but these are probably only metaphorical. A fort 'full of kine' (gomatī) is mentioned,⁶ showing that strongholds were used to hold cattle. 'Autumnal' (śāradī) forts are named, apparently as belonging to the Dāsas: this may refer to the forts in that season being

² Av. iii. 6, 1; 23, 3; iv. 4, 4; vi. 11, 2; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, viii. 5, etc.

¹ i. 53, 7; 58, 8; 131, 4; 166, 8; iii. 15, 4; iv. 27, 1, etc.

² Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 7, 5; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 23; ii. 11; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 4, 3; vi. 3, 3, 25; xi. 1, 1, 2. 3; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, viii. 5, 3, etc.

³ i. 189, 2. .

⁴ Rv. iv. 30, 20. Perhaps sun-dried bricks are alluded to by $\bar{a}m\bar{a}$ (lit. 'raw,' 'unbaked') in Rv. ii. 35, 6.

⁵ Rv. i. 58, 8; ii. 20, 8; iv. 27, 1; vii. 3, 7; 15, 4; 95, 1; x. 101, 8. See Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 2², 378 et seq.

⁶ Av. viii. 6, 23.

occupied against Āryan attacks or against inundations caused by overflowing rivers. Forts 'with a hundred walls' (śata-

It would probably be a mistake to regard these forts as permanently occupied fortified places like the fortresses of the mediæval barony. They were probably merely places of refuge against attack, ramparts of hardened earth with palisades and a ditch (cf. Dehī). Pischel and Geldner, however, think that there were towns with wooden walls and ditches ($\pi\epsilon\rho ieta$ olos and τάφρος) like the Indian town of Pāṭaliputra known to Megasthenes and the Pali texts. 10 This is possible, but hardly susceptible of proof, and it is not without significance that the word Nagara is of late occurrence. On the whole it is hardly likely that in early Vedic times city life was much developed. In the Epic, according to Hopkins,11 there are found the Nagara, 'city'; Grāma, 'village'; and Ghosa, 'ranch.' Vedic literature hardly seems to go beyond the village, no doubt with modifications in its later period.

The siege of forts is mentioned in the Samhitas and Brahmaṇas.12 According to the Rigveda,13 fire was used.

7 Rv. i. 166, 8; vii. 15, 14.

8 Vedische Studien, 1, xxii, xxiii, where kṣiti dhruvā, i. 73, 4, is compared.

9 Strabo, p. 702; Arrian, Indica, 10. 10 Mahāparinibbānasutta, p. 12. Cf. Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, 262.

11 Journal of the American Oriental

Society, 13, 77; 174 et seq.

12 Taittirīya Samhitā, vi. 2, 3, 1; Aitareya Brāhmana, i. 23; Śatapatha Brāhmana, iii. 4, 4, 3-5; Gopatha Brāhmaņa, ii. 2, 7, etc.

13 vii. 5, 3. Possibly, in some cases, the palisade was no more than a hedge of thorn or a row of stakes (cf. Rv. x. 101, 8), as suggested by Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 143, 145; and cf. Rv. viii. 53, 5, as corrected by Roth, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 109.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 142-148, who compares the fact that neither the Germans (Tacitus, Germania, 16)

nor the Slavs (Procopius, De bello Gotico, iii. 14) lived in towns, but, like the ancient Indians, were scattered in villages, each consisting of the houses and steadings of the several families living in the village. The evidence seems pretty convincing. It is true that the Greeks, when we first find them, evidently knew castles and fortresses of the mediæval type; but the Greeks were clearly an invading race, superimposed on an older and in civilization more advanced people (see, e.g., Burrows, Discoveries in Crete). But the Pur may, as Zimmer allows, have sometimes been built within the limits of the village. Whether, as he urges (144), the śāradī pur was a protection against the floods of autumn is uncertain. Cf. Rv. i. 131, 4; 174, 2: vi. 20, 10. In particular, it is not legitimate to connect the mention of those forts with the fact that the Purus

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lived on either side of the Sindhu (Indus), and to assume that Purukutsa's attack on the aborigines was directed against the forts in which they normally protected themselves on the rising of the river. No argument for the large size of cities can be drawn from the mention in the Kāṭhaka Upaniṣad, v. I, of ckādaśa-dvāra as an epithet of Pura (cf. Śvetāśvatara Upaniṣad, iii. 18: nava-dvāra pura, 'the citadel of nine doors'), because it is used meta-

phorically of the body, and the number of doors depends on the nature of the body (Keith, Aitareya Āraṇyaka, 185). The evidence of the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 1, 1, 2. 3, seems rather to point to only one gate in a city.

Cf. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 412; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 5, 451; Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 229; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 202, and

Mahāpur.

Puram-dhi occurs in the Rigveda, possibly as the name of a woman, a protégée of the Asvins, who gave her a son, Hiranya hasta.

1 i. 116, 13. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 398.

Puraya is the name of a patron celebrated in a Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts') in the Rigveda.¹

1 vi. 63, 9. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 158.

I. Purāṇa, denoting a tale 'of olden times,' is often found¹ in the combination Itihāsa-Purāṇa, which is probably a Dvandva compound meaning 'Itihāsa and Purāṇa.' It sometimes² occurs as a separate word, but beside Itihāsa, no doubt with the same sense as in the Dvandva. Sāyaṇa³ defines a Purāṇa as a tale which deals with the primitive condition of the universe and the creation of the world, but there is no ground for supposing that this view is correct, or for clearly distinguishing Itihāsa and Purāṇa. See Itihāsa.

1 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5, 6, 8; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iii. 4, 1. 2; vii. 1, 2. 4; 2, 1; 7, 1.

² Av. xv. 6, 4; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 3, 13; Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, ii 4, 10; iv. 1, 2; 5, 11; Taittirīya Āraṇyaka, ii. 9; Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, i. 53; Purāṇa-veda: Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 2, 27; Purāṇa-vidyā: Āśvalāyana Srauta Sūtra, x. 7, etc.

³ Introduction to Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, cited by St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

2. Purāņa is the name of a Rşi in the Kāthaka Samhitā (xxxix. 7).

Purīkaya is the name of a water animal in the Atharvaveda,1 being clearly a variant of the name that appears as Pulikaya in the Maitrāyanī Samhitā,2 and as Kulīpaya in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā,3 and as Kulīkaya in the Taittirīya Brāhmaņa.4 What animal is meant is quite unknown.

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1 xi. 2, 25.
  2 iii. 14, 2. Pulīkā, ibid., 5, is a
variant of Kulika.
  3 xxiv. 21. 35.
  4 v. 5, 13, 1.
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Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 96; Bloomfield, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 557; Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 621.

Purīsinī is found in a hymn of the Rigveda apparently either as the name of a river,2 or much more probably as an epithet of the Sarayu,3 meaning, perhaps, 'abounding in water, 'swollen,'4 or 'carrying rubble.'5

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<sup>2</sup> An alternative suggested by Roth, Geldner, Rigveda, Glossar, 111.
St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
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3 Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 17;

4 Geldner, loc. cit.

5 Roth, loc. cit.

Puru-kutsa is the name of a king who is mentioned several times in the Rigveda. In one passage1 he is mentioned as a contemporary of Sudas, but whether as a foe, according to Ludwig,2 or merely as a contemporary, according to Hillebrandt,3 is uncertain. In two other passages4 he is mentioned as victorious by divine favour, and in another 5 he appears as a king of the Purus and a conqueror of the Dasas. His son was Trasadasyu,6 who is accordingly called Paurukutsya7 or Paurukutsi.8 Different conclusions have been drawn from one hymn of the Rigveda⁹ in which the birth of Purukutsa's son,

1 i. 63, 7.

² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 174, emending sudase in the text to sudasam, plausibly, but not, of course, convincingly.

3 Vedische Mythologie, 1, 115. Cf. Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 204,

205, 219.

4 i. 112, 7. 14; 174, 2. 5 vi. 20, 10. Cf. i. 63, 7, where

Pūru also is mentioned. Ludwig suggests reading in vi. 20, 10, saudāsīh for dāsīh, referring to the forts of Sudās; but this must be regarded as illegitimate. Cf. Oldenberg, Zeitschrift, 55. 330.

6 Rv. iv. 42, 8. 9.

7 Rv. v. 33, 8; viii. 19, 36.

8 Rv. vii. 19, 3.

9 Rv. iv. 42, 8, 9, with Sayana's note; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 12, 266, 267. Trasadasyu, is mentioned. The usual interpretation is that Purukutsa was killed in battle or captured, whereupon his wife secured a son to restore the fortunes of the Pūrus. But Sieg 10 offers a completely different interpretation. According to him the word daurgahe, which occurs in the hymn, and which in the ordinary view is rendered 'descendant of Durgaha,' an ancestor of Purukutsa, is the name of a horse, the hymn recording the success of an Asvamedha ('horse sacrifice') undertaken by Purukutsa for his wife, as by kings in late times, to secure a son. This interpretation is supported by the version of daurgahe given in the Satapatha, 11 hut is by no means certain. Moreover, if Purukutsa was a contemporary of Sudās, the defeat of the Pūrus by Sudās in the Dāśarājňa 12 might well have been the cause of the troubles from which Purukutsānī, by the birth of Trasadasyu, rescued the family. In the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa 13 Purukutsa is called an Aikṣvāka.

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10 Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 96-102.
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13 xiii. 5, 4, 5. Cf. Ikşvāku, Tryaruņa, and Oldenberg, Buddha, 403.

Purukutsānī, 'wife of Purukutsa,' is mentioned as the mother of Trasadasyu in one hymn of the Rigveda (iv. 42, 9).

Puru-nītha Śāta-vaneya ('descendant of Śatavani') is the name of a sacrificer, or perhaps a priest, a Bhāradvāja, in the Rigveda.¹ It is doubtful whether he is also mentioned as a singer in another passage of the Rigveda.² In both places Roth³ sees in Puru-nītha merely a word meaning 'choral song.'

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<sup>1</sup> i. 59, 7.

<sup>2</sup> vii. 9, 6. Cf. Ludwig, Translation | of the Rigveda, 3, 160; Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 60.

<sup>3</sup> St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
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Puru-dama occurs in the plural in the Atharvaveda, where, according to Ludwig, it is probably the proper name of the singers, but by Roth and Whitney is understood as merely an adjective meaning possessed of many houses.

¹¹ xiii. 5, 4, 5.

¹² vii. 18. Cf. also the reference to a Pūru defeat in vii. 8, 4.

¹ vii. 73, I.

² Translation of the Rigveda, 3,

³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

⁴ Translation of the Atharvaveda,

Puru-panthā is mentioned as a generous donor to a Bharadvāja in one hymn of the Rigveda (vi. 63, 10).

Puru-māyya occurs in one hymn of the Rigveda¹ as a protégé of Indra. It is quite possible that he was the father of, or at least connected with, Atithigva, Rkṣa, and Aśvamedha, who are celebrated in the hymn.

1 viii, 68, 10. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 163.

Puru-mitra is mentioned twice in the Rigveda (i. 117, 20; x. 39, 7) as the father of a maiden who wedded Vimada, apparently against her father's will.

Puru-mīļha is mentioned twice in the Rigveda¹ as an ancient sage, in which capacity he appears in the Atharvaveda² also. Perhaps the same³ Purumīļha is intended in an obscure hymn in the Rigveda,⁴ where, according to the legends reported in the Bṛhaddevatā⁵ and by Ṣadguruśiṣya in his commentary on the Sarvānukramaṇī,⁶ and by Sāyaṇa in his commentary on the Rigveda,⁴ he as well as Taranta was a son of Vidadaśva, and a patron of the singer Śyāvāśva. The correctness of the legend has been shown to be most improbable by Oldenberg,⁻ who points out⁵ that the legend misinterprets the Rigveda by making Purumīlha a Vaidadaśvi, for he is there only compared in generosity to one.

In another legend found in the Pañcavimáa Brāhmaṇa, and based on a hymn of the Rigveda, Purumīlha and Taranta appear as persons who received gifts from Dhvasra and Purusanti, and as sons of Vidadaśva. The legend, which also occurs in the Śāṭyāyanaka, is apparently best explained by

¹ i. 151, 2; 183, 5.

² iv. 29, 4; xviii. 3, 15.

³ See, however, Weber, Episches im vedischen Ritual, 27, n. 3; Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 62, n. 3.

⁴ v. 61, 9.

v. 49 et seq., with Macdonell's notes.

⁶ Edition Macdonell, pp. 118 et seq.

⁷ Rgveda-Noten, 1, 353, 354. Cf. Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32.

⁸ Op. cit., 354, n. 1.

⁹ xiii. 7, 12.

¹⁰ ix. 58, 3.
11 Cited by Sāyaṇa on Rv., loc. cit.

Sieg,12 who says that as the two were kings they could not under the rules of caste accept gifts, unless for the nonce they became singers. The legend has no claim at all, as Oldenberg13 shows, to validity.

12 Op. cit., 63.

13 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 232, n. 1. He points out, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 354, that | the two Taranta and Purumilha.

the legend is not accepted by the Anukramanī (Index), since its list of authors gives Avatsara as the Rsi, not

END OF VOL. I.







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